

1982

Adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents.

Lillian. Guarasci
University of Windsor

Follow this and additional works at: <http://scholar.uwindsor.ca/etd>

Recommended Citation

Guarasci, Lillian., "Adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents." (1982). *Electronic Theses and Dissertations*. Paper 902.

This online database contains the full-text of PhD dissertations and Masters' theses of University of Windsor students from 1954 forward. These documents are made available for personal study and research purposes only, in accordance with the Canadian Copyright Act and the Creative Commons license—CC BY-NC-ND (Attribution, Non-Commercial, No Derivative Works). Under this license, works must always be attributed to the copyright holder (original author), cannot be used for any commercial purposes, and may not be altered. Any other use would require the permission of the copyright holder. Students may inquire about withdrawing their dissertation and/or thesis from this database. For additional inquiries, please contact the repository administrator via email (scholarship@uwindsor.ca) or by telephone at 519-253-3000ext. 3208.

CANADIAN THESES ON MICROFICHE

I.S.B.N.

THESES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE



National Library of Canada
Collections Development Branch

Canadian Theses on
Microfiche Service

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
Direction du développement des collections

Service des thèses canadiennes
sur microfiche

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us a poor photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de mauvaise qualité.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR
CUSTODIAL AND NON-CUSTODIAL
PARENTS

by



Lillian Guarasci
and
Theresa Marie Sheehan

A Thesis
submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies,
through the School of
Social Work in Partial Fulfillment
of the requirements for the Degree
of Master of Social Work at
The University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

1981

Lillian Guarasci
and
Theresa Marie Sheehan
All rights reserved

1981

767906

ABSTRACT

This research study utilizes an exploratory design to investigate the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents, post-divorce. It is an area in which little prior investigation has been undertaken.

To answer the research question, eight major variables were extracted from an extensive review of the literature. Another three variables were developed to provide qualitative data regarding the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial parent and their non-custodial parent.

An interview schedule which contained these variables, and questions pertaining to demographic information was developed. The interview schedule was judged and pre-tested to improve its validity and reliability prior to data collection.

The research instrument was administered to 26 adolescents between the ages of 12 and 16 whose parents were members of the Windsor-Essex Chapter of the Parents Without Partners organization. Both quantitative and qualitative forms of analysis were performed on the data collected.

The findings of this study indicate a positive view of the custodial parent in terms of meeting the adolescents' emotional needs. Adolescents perceived the custodial parent as overprotective and restrictive in terms of discipline.

In most instances, non-custodial parents were not perceived as either good disciplinarians, or as meeting emotional needs by the adolescents. Availability seemed to be a key factor to a more positive view of the non-custodial parent. Adolescents' relationships with their custodial and non-custodial parents tended to be perceived as positive.

Custodial parents were found to be more positively viewed than non-custodial parents. The only exception was that adolescents perceived their non-custodial parents as more stable than their custodial parents.

C As a result of the research findings, recommendations were made in the areas of research, policy, and intervention.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The researchers would like to thank the members of the research committee: D. R. Cassano, M.S.W., for the time and energy she devoted to this thesis; L. E. Buckley, D.S.W., for her attention to detail, and R. N. Whitehurst, Ph.D., for his sense of humour and his ability to focus on the essentials.

Gratitude is expressed to F. C. Hansen, D.S.W., for answering our questions instead of sending us down the hall.

Those professionals in the community who acted as judges for the research instrument are gratefully acknowledged: Philip Bagley, B.S.W., Christina Dawson, M.S.W., Rakesh Kumar, M.S.W., Bernard Levasseur, M.S.W., John McGrory, Ph.D., William Ross, Ph.D., and Linda White, M.S.W.

The authors wish to thank Marlene Sweet who assisted in obtaining the sample. Special thanks are extended to those adolescents who participated in the research project. The researchers acknowledge those parents who allowed their adolescents to participate in the study. Without the cooperation of these parents and adolescents the research could not have been conducted.

The expert typing of this thesis was done by Joan Reid. She is acknowledged for her clear thinking in the midst of the confusion involved in its final preparation.

Thanks are extended to family and friends for providing encouragement and support, and providing coffee and food in abundance. In particular, special thanks are due to Candy Charbonneau for coming through in the crunch.

We would like to acknowledge those students who assumed that we spent the major portion of the year in hedonistic pursuits. For their erroneous assumptions, they are acknowledged. As a measure of our appreciation we offer the words of an unknown author, "The proof is in the binding."

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
LIST OF APPENDICES	xiii
 CHAPTER	
I INTRODUCTION	1
II REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	5
Trends in Divorce and Custody in Canada	6
Divorce and the Adolescent	12
Adolescent Development	15
Parent-Child Relationships	19
Person Perception	24
Factors Influencing Adolescent Perceptions of Their Parents	25
Summary	46
III RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	48
Classification of the Research	48
The Research Question	50
Conceptual Definitions	52
Operational Definitions	54
The Setting	54
The Sample	55
Data Collection Method	57
The Research Instrument	58
The Collection of the Data	62
Data Analysis	64
IV ANALYSIS OF DATA AND PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS	68
Quantitative Analysis of Data and Presentation of Findings	68
Inappropriate Operationalization of the Parental Control Variable	70
Description of the Sample	71
Custodial Parent	80
Distributions of Subjects' Perceptions	80

Variables Related to the 'Subjects' Perceptions	82
Relationships Among the Major Variables Measuring Perceptions	86
Non-Custodial Parent	89
Distributions of Subjects' Perceptions	89
Variables Related to the Subjects' Perceptions	92
Relationships Among the Major Variables Measuring Perceptions	97
Comparison of Adolescents' Perceptions of Their Custodial and Non-Custodial Parents	100
Qualitative Analysis of Data and Presentation of Findings	102
Adolescents' Perceptions of the Custodial Parent	103
Desired Changes in the Custodial Parent	107
The Adolescent's Perception of the Quality of His/Her Rela- tionship with the Custodial Parent	111
The Adolescents' Perception of their Relationship with the Custodial Parent	116
The Adolescent's Perception of How He/She is Viewed by the Custodial Parent	122
Adolescents' Perceptions of their Non-Custodial Parent	128
Desired Changes in the Non- Custodial Parent	133
The Adolescent's Perception of the Quality of His/Her Rela- tionship with the Non-Custodial Parent	138
The Adolescents' Perceptions of their Relationship with the Non-Custodial Parent	143
The Adolescent's Perception of How He/She is Viewed by the Non-Custodial Parent	148
INTERPRETATION OF DATA AND FINDINGS	156
The Adolescents' Perceptions of Their Custodial and Non- Custodial Parents	158
Interpretation of Quantitative Data and Findings	158

	Interpretation of Qualitative	
	Data and Findings	188
	Summary	196
VI	CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	199
	Major Findings	200
	How are the Custodial and Non-	
	Custodial Parents Perceived	200
	Recommendations	208
	Research	208
	Policy	210
	Intervention	213
	APPENDIX	215
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	247
	VITA AUCTORIS	256

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		Page
1	Number of Dependent Children Involved in Divorce and Custody Decisions for the Years 1975 to 1979	7
2	1979 Divorces with Dependent Children by Parties to Whom Custody was Granted	8
3	Visits (per year) with the Non-Custodial Parent	73
4	Comparison of Adolescents' Perceptions of Their Custodial and Non-Custodial Parents	101
5	The Adolescents' Perceptions of Their Custodial Parent	104
6	Desired Changes in the Custodial Parent	109
7	The Adolescent's Perception of the Quality of His/Her Relationship with the Custodial Parent	113
8	The Adolescents' Perception of Their Relationship with the Custodial Parent	118
9	The Adolescent's Perception of How He/She is Viewed by the Custodial Parent	123
10	The Adolescents' Perception of Their Non-Custodial Parent	129
11	Desired Changes in the Non-Custodial Parent	135
12	The Adolescent's Perception of the Quality of His/Her Relationship with the Non-Custodial Parent	139
13	The Adolescents' Perceptions of Their Relationship with the Non-Custodial Parent	145
14	The Adolescent's Perception of How He/She is Viewed by the Non-Custodial Parent	149

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE		Page
1	Frequency distributions of adolescents' perceptions of the custodial parent	83
2	Frequency distributions of adolescents' perceptions of the non-custodial parent	93

2

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX	Page
A Letter to President of Parents Without Partners requesting permission to carry out the study with adolescents from the organization	216
B Permission letter from the President of Parents Without Partners	218
C Parent consent form	220
D Personal consent form	222
E Research Instrument	224
F Statements measuring the eight variables . .	241
G Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients (r) for intercorrelations of the seven variables measuring adolescents' perceptions of the custodial parent	244
H Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients (r) for intercorrelations of the seven variables measuring adolescents' perceptions of the non-custodial parent	246

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Divorce rates are increasing in North American society. Ending a marriage through divorce has become a socially sanctioned alternative to continuing in an unhappy marital relationship. This fact is apparent in legislative changes which have made it easier for spouses to divorce than was ever previously possible. Therefore, divorce need no longer be considered as a deviation from societal standards. Rather, it should be considered as a social phenomenon which is occurring for a greater number of Canadian and American families.

As a result of rising divorce rates, the number of children involved in this experience is increasing. Undoubtedly, there are many social and emotional consequences of divorce for the spouses, as well as the children, of the marriage. Where there are offspring of the marriage, the consequences of divorce are extended to the parent-child relationship. These ramifications should be thoroughly understood so that systematic knowledge exists in this area. This knowledge will assist social work practitioners in developing strategies of intervention for divorcing families.

Although research regarding the consequences of divorce has been on the increase in recent times, the researchers of this study noted certain gaps. There was very little systematic research which addressed itself to the consequences of divorce for the adolescent offspring. In addition, there was a lack of literature pertaining to children's perceptions of their parents following divorce. Knowledge of the ways in which the child perceives each parent is important in understanding the parent-child relationship after divorce. This understanding would seem crucial given the importance of the parent-child relationship in ensuring the emotional health of children.

Parents in North American society have long been considered the major contributors to the socialization of their children. Even after divorce has occurred, parents are expected to continue this socializing function with their children. Fulfilling this function may be difficult for parents given the social and emotional consequences which accompany divorce. The child may perceive that the parent is experiencing difficulty in his/her parental role. As a result, alterations in the parent-child relationship will occur.

This study examines adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents after divorce. The researchers' rationale for choice of this particular area of study was twofold. There was a lack of knowledge concerning adolescents' perceptions of their parents after divorce.

In addition, the researchers had many concerns pertaining to this area as a result of their professional experiences with families of divorce.

An extensive review of the literature pertaining to families of divorce and adolescence is presented in Chapter II. Eight factors which were related to the parent-child relationship after divorce were isolated. It was speculated that these factors would contribute to the adolescent's perception of his/her parents after divorce.

An exploratory study design was chosen given the absence of research in the area. The research question chosen to guide the study was: "What are the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents?". A structured interview schedule was developed based on factors identified in the review of the literature. The research instrument was designed to yield both quantitative and qualitative data to answer the research question. This instrument was examined by a panel of expert judges to ensure its validity. Subsequently, a pre-test was conducted to ensure the reliability of the instrument.

This interview schedule was administered to 24 adolescents who were between the ages of 12 and 16. Two pre-test subjects were later included in the sample as they met the criteria of the study and no alterations were made to the instrument as a result of the pre-test. These 26 interviews generated both quantitative and qualitative data on which the

findings of the study were based. Methods of analysis appropriate to the types of data collected were utilized. The methodological approaches undertaken in this study are presented in Chapter III.

A description of the procedures utilized to analyze the data and the findings resulting from these analyses are presented in detail in Chapter IV. The interpretations of these findings in light of the literature reviewed are given in Chapter V. Conclusions and recommendations which have resulted from this research project are incorporated in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The literature search demonstrated an absence of knowledge specific to the adolescents' perceptions of their parents post-divorce. This placed the researchers in the position of reviewing related areas for information pertinent to the study. Of particular relevance were those articles specifically related to parent-child relationships following divorce. Literature sources were obtained by both a computer search and a manual search. The computer search consisted of a review of publications related to our topic through the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) index. A subject guide to books, articles, dissertations, government documents and films on divorce (Sell, 1970-1976, 1977, 1978, 1979) assisted the review. Also of use was the Compilation of Unpublished Research About Divorce (CURD) (Raschke & Day). To complete this review a manual search was conducted which included those publications available in the Leddy Library, University of Windsor, or available through interlibrary loan.

This chapter commences with a presentation of current trends of divorce and custody determination in Canada. The following sections include adolescent development and literature related to parent-child relationships. A person's

perception is an integral part of interpersonal relationships and because we are studying adolescents' perceptions, this topic is defined and discussed. The focus of the chapter is those factors that possibly influence adolescent perceptions of their parents following divorce.

Trends in Divorce and Custody in Canada

Prior to 1968, there were variations in Canadian divorce law from province to province. For the most part, these laws were modeled on the English Divorce and Matrimonial Causes Act of 1857 (Abernathy & Arcus, 1977, p. 410). In essence, these laws were restrictive as to the grounds for divorce. The Divorce Act of 1968 unified these laws and at the same time liberalized the number and kinds of grounds available to divorcing parties (Wakil, 1976, pp. 35-36). These changes in the law contributed to an abrupt rise in the divorce rates in 1969 (Peters, 1979, p. 140). Since then the rate of divorce has increased steadily at close to 11% per annum (Peters, 1979, p. 139). As of 1976, there were 302,535 divorced persons in Canada (Ambert, 1980, p. 24). Of those persons who divorce, 60% have children (Peters, 1979, p. 144; Ambert, 1980, p. 164). The above statistics are based on figures available as of 1976. If the divorce rate continues to increase as one would expect, more and more children will be exposed to the divorce experience. This trend is already evident. Table 1 shows the increase in the number of dependent children involved in divorce and custody decisions for the years 1975 to 1979.

Table 1
Number of Dependent Children Involved in
Divorce and Custody Decisions for the
Years 1975 to 1979

Year	Number of Children
1975	30,349
1976	42,203
1977	42,013
1978	59,436
1979	57,856

Source: Statistics Canada, Vital Statistics, Vol. II, Marriages and Divorces. Statistics for 1975, 1976, and 1977 from Table 22, 1977, Ottawa, November 1979, p. 42. Statistics for 1978 from Table 15, 1978, Ottawa, April 1980, p. 22. Statistics for 1979 from Table 15, 1979, Ottawa, June 1981, p. 24. Statistics for the number of children may be found by summing the totals for husband and wife for each year.

Statistics for 1979 show that approximately 95% of divorce cases where there are dependent children involve some form of custody arrangement. This statistic may be derived from Table 2 by subtracting the number of children where no award of custody was made for both husband and wife as petitioner from the combined totals for both husband and wife as petitioner; dividing this difference by the combined totals for husband and wife as petitioner; and multiplying the resultant number by 100.

Table 2
1979 Divorces with Dependent Children by
Parties to Whom Custody was Granted

Custody Granted	Petitioner - Husband		Petitioner - Wife	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
To the petitioner	6,146	37.22	36,716	88.81
To the respondent	8,846	53.57	2,970	7.18
To other person or agency	43	.26	94	.23
No award of custody made	1,477	8.95	1,564	3.78
Totals	16,512	100.00	41,344	100.00

Source: Statistics Canada, Vital Statistics, Vol. II, Marriages and Divorces, 1979, Ottawa, June 1981. Adapted from Table 15, p. 24. Format for Table is from Ambert (1980), p. 177.

There are three types of possible custody arrangements:

- 1) one-parent, where sole or exclusive custody is awarded to either parent
- 2) joint, where two parents share responsibility and authority over the child
- 3) split, where one or more children live with one parent and the other(s) live with the other parent. (Ramos, 1979, pp. 49-51)

The most common arrangement is one-parent. Although custody may be awarded to either parent, mothers are most often awarded custody of the children. Peters (1979) notes that for the years 1972 to 1975, 88% of the wives who petitioned for divorce obtained custody while petitioning husbands gained custody in only 36% of the cases.

The figures for 1979 exhibit the fact that 83% of the children involved in custody cases were awarded to the mother as opposed to the father. This statistic may be obtained from Table 2 by dividing the number of children awarded to the wife as both petitioner and respondent by the total number of children awarded to both husband and wife as petitioner and as respondent; and multiplying the resultant number by 100. The statistics for joint and split custody are lacking in the research on divorce. However, Schlesinger (1977) estimates that split custody is awarded only 5% of the time.

In custody decision making, the best interests of the child are of paramount significance. Theories regarding what constitutes serving the best interests of the child are diverse. Award (1978) outlines four criteria which have

been used traditionally employing the best interests of the child guideline:

- 1) young children should be placed in the custody of the mother,
- 2) a girl should be placed in the mother's custody, a boy in the father's if constant care is no longer required,
- 3) the child's choice should be considered if he is old enough, and
- 4) the non-custodial parent should have visitation rights. (p. 443)

These criteria are in contrast to the more liberal views of Goldstein, Freud, and Solnit (1979). These authors substitute "the least detrimental available alternative for safeguarding the child's growth and development" as the guideline for awarding custody (p. 53). Within this guideline three principles are utilized:

- 1) the child's need for continuity of relationships should be safeguarded;
- 2) the decision should reflect the child's, not the adult's sense of time; and
- 3) the decision must take into account the law's incapacity to supervise interpersonal relationships and the limits of knowledge to make long range predictions. (Goldstein et al., 1979, pp. 31-64)

Goldstein et al. note that the "least detrimental alternative" implies that parents involved in divorce proceedings have no inherent right to custody of their children; neither parent is favoured for custody; and visitation by the non-custodial parent cannot be legislated. "The right to determine when and if it is desirable to arrange visits" lies with the custodial parent (Goldstein et al., 1979, p. 117).

Although the views of Award (1978) and Goldstein et al. (1979) are divergent in some aspects, both take into account

"the best interests of the child." The child's best interests are served by the maintenance of continuity in the parent-child relationship. The researchers surmise that the awarding of custody has an impact on the character of the parent-child relationship. The custody issue is of concern given the fact that some provision for custody is made in the majority of divorce cases.

Canadian research on divorce is a recent phenomenon (Peters, 1979) and is lacking in regard to the children of divorce (Ambert, 1980). This is particularly disconcerting given the frequency with which divorce occurs in present-day society. The studies reviewed (both Canadian and American) indicate that there are ramifications on the emotional well-being of children, both during and following such an event. They tend to view divorce theoretically within crisis and loss frameworks. The application of crisis theory, especially in terms of loss or threatened loss of a significant other has been discussed most notably by Wallerstein and Kelly (1977). The loss model as advanced by Hozman and Froiland (1976) proposes that children exposed to divorce respond much as one would to death. These two viewpoints complement one another in viewing divorce as a process whereby a child may move toward, or away from, healthy functioning.

Divorce disrupts functioning in a number of ways. This thesis developed as a result of the interest of the re-

searchers, both social workers, in an understanding of family functioning and relationships following divorce. The study began with an interest in the impact of divorce on children. The research area became more focused on the parent-child relationship as viewed from the child's perspective.

Divorce and the Adolescent

The experience of the adolescent following divorce was chosen by the researchers as the focus for the study. The rationale for this choice was based on the recognition of adolescence as a critical phase of development. Significant in this period are the changes which take place at physical, cognitive, psychological, and social levels. The continued influence of the parents eases the adolescent into adulthood. The researchers thought that divorce may interfere with normal development in this period. In addition, there is a paucity of research on the adolescent experience of divorce. The majority of the studies conducted are restricted to pre-school and elementary school-aged children.

Much of the research on divorce and adolescence concerns itself with the effects of divorce on the subsequent behaviour of the adolescent. Few studies deal with the adolescents' perceptions of their primary caretakers. These perceptions undoubtedly affect both the behaviour of the adolescent and his/her parents.

Research in person perception is of interest because the impressions we form of others have implications for our interpersonal relations. Our interaction

with another person is at least partly determined by our perception of him. (Livesley & Bromley, 1973, p. 12)

Cook (1979) goes further when he states that the way people see each other determines their behaviour towards each other. It is these perceptions and their impact upon parent-child relationships which the researchers wished to investigate.

The adolescents included in our study are considered to be from homes broken by divorce. Do these adolescents differ in any way from their counterparts in other family type classifications? The following studies indicate that dysfunctional parenting and destructive marital relationships have a negative impact on child adjustment regardless of family form.

Nye (1957) addressed his study to the following research question: "whether children are better adjusted in homes psychologically broken, but legally and physically intact compared with legally broken homes" (p. 356). The findings, based on the 780 adolescents included in Nye's study, were as follows:

Adolescents in broken homes show less psychomatic illness, less delinquent behaviour, and better adjustment to parents than do children in unhappy unbroken homes. They do not differ significantly with respect to adjustment in school, church, or delinquent companions. (p. 358)

Burchinal (1964) reported that the results of Landis's study (1956) indicated that adolescents from broken homes seemed better adjusted than those adolescents who were from unbroken homes which were unhappy.

Burchinal (1964) reported the results of his study in which he measured the personality characteristics of adolescents in five family types. These five family types were:

- 1) unbroken families
- 2) mothers only, where the mother had been divorced, separated or widowed
- 3) mothers and step-fathers
- 4) both parents remarried
- 5) fathers and step-mothers. (p. 45)

From his investigations, Burchinal found that the personality characteristics of adolescents were not related to the marital status of the parents.

In terms of variables measured, family dissolution and, for some families, reconstitution, was not the overwhelming factor in the children's lives that many have thought it to be. (Burchinal, 1964, p. 50)

Hess and Camara (1979) also found marital status to be less of a potent force in terms of influencing child behaviour.

These authors state that the relationships among family members in both intact and divorced groups was the critical factor as opposed to marital status (Hess & Camara, 1979).

Divorce, then, is not necessarily the precipitating factor in dysfunction in the child. The present study focuses on adolescents who have experienced the divorce of their parents. The adolescent's perception of his/her parents may provide an indicator of the quality of the parent-child relationship. The aforementioned studies indicate the importance of these relationships.

The purpose of the study was to explore the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents after divorce. The following section of the

literature review identifies the essential elements in adolescent development. An understanding of these elements is necessary in examining the impact divorce may have on the adolescents' perceptions of their parents.

Adolescent Development

Adolescence is viewed as a period of turbulence as it is fraught with many changes. Puberty marks the onset of physical changes and the adjustment to these transformations. Social relationships take on greater significance. Even thinking patterns change as the adolescent moves from concrete to abstract thought. One of the more trying tasks is the adolescent's move towards independence. This distancing from parents may be accelerated when divorce has occurred for the adolescent is faced with the actual physical distance of one parent. Divorce may also have left the adolescent without a gender role at a time when the attainment of a sexual identity is in progress. The success with which the adolescent completes these developmental tasks will determine the emotional state with which he/she enters adulthood. It is precisely for these reasons that the researchers chose to focus on this particular age group.

The onset of puberty is characterized by both internal and external physiological changes which occur at the end of childhood. Internal hormonal changes precipitate the development of external features. Meredith (1967) describes these puberal changes:

Termination of childhood is signified by increase in the growth rates for size of breasts, ovaries, and uterus in the girl; size of testes, scrotum, and penis in the boy; and in both sexes, size of shoulders and hips, arms and legs, height, and total body mass. Other puberal changes include beginning menstruation by the girl, voice change and growth of facial hair by the boy, and the development by both sexes of moderately coarse pigmented hair in the armpit and groin regions. (p. 171)

Psychological, cognitive and social changes accompany the physical maturation of the adolescent. In terms of physiological growth the primary task is that of adjustment to a new body image and the acceptance of one's sexual identity.

Freud (1938) referred to adolescence as the genital stage of psychosexual development, for in this stage the libido is concentrated on the genital area of the body (p. 604). This stage is characterized by the resurgence of the sexual impulses experienced during the Oedipal phase. Physiological changes at puberty prompt stronger and more urgent sexual feelings than those experienced prior to their onset. Since these sexual feelings cannot be directed to the parents as primary love objects, gratification is sought outside the family (Freud, S., 1938; Freud, A., 1958). In the midst of such powerful feelings the adolescent attempts to maintain a state of equilibrium. However, Anna Freud (1958) states that the expectation that equilibrium be maintained is in itself abnormal during the adolescent process. The genital stage of development culminates with the ability to form mature sexual unions.

According to Erikson (1950), the acquisition of an ego identity is the major developmental task of adolescence. Conflict may arise in the form of role confusion when the adolescent doubts his own identity and overidentifies with others in his environment. According to Muuss (1962), the developmental theory of Erikson recognizes that certain components are necessary for the establishment of ego identity. "The child in order to acquire a strong and healthy ego identity, must receive consistent, meaningful recognition of his achievements and accomplishments" (Muuss, 1962, p. 49). Ego identity involves the integration of the adolescent's ambitions and aspirations with the previous identifications acquired in the earlier stages (Muuss, 1962). The adolescent must successfully attain an ego-identity in preparation for his societal role in a vocation.

The cognitive development of the adolescent is referred to as the period of "formal operations" by Piaget (1973). This period of cognitive development is based on previous levels and stages. The period of formal operations begins at the age of 12 and levels at the age of 14 or 15 (Piaget, 1973). Piaget (1973) makes clear the fact that there may be individual differences in the development of cognitive operations due to such factors as heredity and social environment. During this stage the adolescent becomes capable of moving from concrete to abstract reasoning. The logic of propositions, combinations, probabilities, and proportions are the four formal operations encompassed

in this stage of cognitive development. (Campbell, 1976). The integration of these operations provides the adolescent with the capacity for adult thinking.

The task of socialization during adolescence differs from that which is encountered in earlier stages of development. This period of socialization is unique for there is a shift from a position of dependence to one of independence. During this phase the adolescent must become accustomed to the responsibilities which accompany independence (Bernard, 1971). Conformity and rebellion which co-exist in the adolescent are characteristic of this struggle to achieve independence from parents while maintaining parental approval (Rappoport, 1972).

This transition from dependence to independence during adolescence involves a change in the social locus from the family to the peer group. The peer group enables the adolescent to disengage himself from the parents while assisting in the acquisition of a sexual identity. In addition, the peer group provides an acceptable outlet for sexual energy. The adolescent is dependent on the peer group in accomplishing the following tasks:

- (a) achieving mature relations with age mates of both sexes,
- (b) achieving a masculine or feminine role,
- (c) achieving emotional independence from parents,
- (d) desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior,
- (e) acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behavior. (Bernard, 1971, p. 208)

Included in the various new social roles facing the adolescent is the prospect of the search for an occupational role.

This further compounds the adolescent's struggle as Erikson (1950) explains:

With tangible adult tasks ahead of them (youths) are now primarily concerned with what they appear to be in the eyes of others as compared with what they feel they are, and with the question of how to connect the roles and skills cultivated earlier with the occupational prototypes of the day. (p. 261)

The facets of adolescent development have been reviewed in this section. The literature supports the view that adolescence is a critical stage of development. Successful passage through this period is dependent on the adaptations made to the changes which occur. The implications for health or dysfunction are evident on all levels.

Parent-Child Relationships

The developmental changes in the adolescent must be accompanied by reciprocal changes in parenting. The nature of the parent-child relationship during this crucial phase of development may be the deciding factor in adjustment of the adolescent to divorce. Stevens and Mathews (1978) state that "Divorce results in a dramatic, precipitous change in family structure with significant emotional, social and cognitive sequelae both for parents and children" (p. 147). The literature on parent-child relationships provides the context for comparing and contrasting parent-child relationships after divorce.

The literature reveals that there are no prescriptions and no hard and fast rules that govern parent-child relationships. It is generally agreed that the genesis of

mutually satisfying parent-child relationships lies in successful parenting. In discussing the nature of the parent-child relationship Bernhardt (1970) points out that:

The child who feels that he is wanted, accepted as a person, generally approved of, trusted and loved enjoys an atmosphere in which he can learn and develop and build a strong, healthy character. (p. 130)

Providing this atmosphere is no easy task for the parent. A number of theoretical frameworks have been advanced, each with its own set of mandates for parent-child interaction. Mead (1976) lends some structure to a complex issue when he enumerates six major approaches to child rearing:

- 1) the psychoanalytic
- 2) the developmental-maturational,
- 3) the socio-teleological
- 4) the existential-phenomenological,
- 5) the cognitive-developmental, and
- 6) the behavioral. (p. 7)

According to psychoanalytic theory parents must understand that children are governed by instincts. Once parents understand this they will be able to direct and control the instincts when the child is young and help him develop controls for later life (Mead, 1976). Erikson (1968), a neo-Freudian, developed a series of psychosocial stages through which all persons must pass to achieve integrated functioning. Bigner (1979) postulates that Erikson's eight stages of man imply that parent-child interaction is a reciprocal process leading to healthy development of both parent and child through the life cycle.

The developmental-maturational approach is rooted in the work done in child guidance by Gessell and Ilg (1956).

Gesell's theory is based on the concept of growth which resides in the child's genetic inheritance. Self-adjustment is another core characteristic of child development within this theory. Mead (1976) enunciates the work of parents in regard to their children within this approach:

Parents should work to create the most favorable conditions for the child's self-regulating functions so that he can come to a state of self-adjustment. To accomplish this, parents direct, intervene, assist, postpone, and encourage or discourage many times. (p. 41)

The socio-teleological approach has its theoretical base in the work of Adler (1959) and has been developed by Dreikurs and Grey (1968). Bigner (1979) refers to this as a democratic approach to parent-child interaction where children learn to take responsibility for themselves through discovering the "logical consequences" of their actions.

The leading theorist in the cognitive-developmental approach is Piaget (1973). The development of cognition is brought about through physical maturation. Maccoby (1980) notes that the theory of Piaget in regard to development recognizes that the child needs stimulation from the environment in order to develop his thought processes. Mead (1976) indicates that the responsibility of parents with regard to the development of cognition lies in presenting material to the child which will assist him in discovering solutions.

The existential-phenomenological approach to parenting is based on the notion that all human beings strive for self actualization. Mead (1976) notes that being a good parent

by the guidelines of this approach implies accepting oneself and accepting others. Central to healthy adjustment in the child is the provision for positive regard. Meador and Rogers (1973) state that "the individual's need for positive regard can only be satisfied by others, and his need for positive regard from significant others is particularly potent" (p. 130).

The behavioural approach posits that children's behaviour can be altered by changing external events. Maccoby (1980) notes the key concept of the approach and comments on the parental role:

Stimulus-response connections, forged through repeated experiences, are the building blocks of all knowledge, of all behavior. Parents, knowingly or not, have an important role in determining what the child's experiences shall be. (p. 12)

What are the factors that foster healthy parenthood and in turn healthy parent-child relationships? One of the primary ingredients for successful parenting is a parent who is secure as an individual. Symonds (1949) states "perhaps the most valid general thing that can be said is that good parents are well adjusted people" (p. 110). Parents who have successfully integrated their own personalities are able to provide an environment in which children are able to grow to healthy maturity. These parents are able to respond differentially to their children in keeping with their needs. Lidz (1968) notes that:

Parenthood, the satisfactions it provides and the demands it makes, varies as life progresses; and

changes with the parents' interests, needs, and age as well as with the children's maturation. (p. 452)

The relationship between parent and child is largely formed from birth through the continued influence of the parent. What constitutes "normal" or "healthy" parent-child relationships must be derived from formulations which approach the subject from extreme positions. In this way, some arbitrary line which constitutes the norm may be drawn. Sidney Callahan (1973) comments on the absence of any concrete predictors for parent-child relationships:

Parent-child relationships are affected by too many variables. Who knows how much to weigh parenting along with the influence of genetic factors, temperament, family size, position in the family, sex, socioeconomic conditions, race, religion, peers, schooling, other adult models, the media, and finally, random chance events. . . . But cause and effect are never simple or clear-cut in parent-child interactions. (p. 207)

Callahan (1973) also speculates as to what constitutes "good" parent-child relationships:

Basically a good parent protects and nurtures his child; and through providing care the parent enjoys, entices and encourages the child into life. At the same time the good parent gradually withdraws and separates from the child so it can become independent and grow up. (p. 33)

This portion of the review has focused on parent-child relationships. These relationships have been presented in the context of six basic theoretical formulations. The guidelines for parenting as outgrowths of these theories were discussed. In addition, the concept of "normal" parent-child relationships was questioned in light of the available literature.

Person Perception

Perception of the parent is intricately tied to the parent-child relationship. The adjustments made, the thoughts and feelings experienced by the adolescent may be based on the perception of the parent. For these reasons, perception of other persons is pertinent.

The perceiving of persons, as opposed to that of things, is categorized as interpersonal perception and under the general heading of social perception. Renato Tagiuri (1968) defines this form of perception: "person perception refers to the process by which man comes to know and to think about other persons, their characteristics, qualities and inner states" (p. 395). The person, behaviour and context are interrelated factors which influence how one individual perceives another. The perceiver may make a snap judgement based on what he perceives. The next step in person perception involves the attribution of a trait to the stimulus person. The stimulus may be perceived as reactive or purposive. A trait attributed to a person has further implications to the formulation of an impression of the person. In forming an impression, a group of traits is attributed to the person (Schneider, Hastorf, & Ellsworth, 1979).

Perception varies with the age and sex of the person. A study of person perception in children revealed that there were distinct differences when the variables sex and age were

analyzed. They found that more complex perceptual reports tended to be given by older children and that nurturing behaviours were emphasized more by females than males (Yarrow & Campbell, 1963).

Physical, cognitive and psychological development correspond to the growth of the ability to perceive accurately. Emmerich's research (1974) into person perception and the process of trait inference concluded that "certain trait evaluations change systematically with development during middle childhood and adolescence" (p. 176).

Cook (1971) describes the field of interpersonal perception as "the study of the ways people react and respond to others, in thought, feeling and action" (p. 14). This study explores the ways in which adolescents react and respond to their parents. The ways in which the adolescent perceives his/her parents after divorce will have implications for the parent-child relationship.

Factors Influencing Adolescent Perceptions of Their Parents

The parent-child relationship governs the degree to which the child develops into a healthy functioning individual. Although no hard and fast rules exist as to what constitutes a "good" parent-child relationship, certain qualities have been accepted as basic to good parenting. These qualities range from the provisions for meeting physical needs (good provider), to those of meeting the child's emotional needs

(nurturance). A child will relate to the parent in accordance with the characteristics or traits he views the parent as possessing. This is based on theory that there is a linkage between perception and behaviour.

For the purposes of our study it was necessary to review post-divorce research on parent-child relationships. The researchers took the stance that the salient factors involved in the child's perception of the parent would be delineated in this way. The premise is that parental behaviour subsequent to divorce is related to how a child will view the parent in these circumstances. This approach was adopted by the researchers since the literature revealed an absence of information as to how adolescents perceive their parents following divorce. Through this process eight characteristics of parent-child relationships were identified: attachment, nurturance, hostility, control, stability, dependability, identification, and idealization. These factors were subsequently operationalized and measured for the purposes of the study. Each factor has been described in detail with reference to the studies from which it was extracted.

Attachment

Klaus and Kennell (1978) define attachment as "a unique relationship between two people which is specific and endures through time" (p. 5). The requirement for continuity in the parent-child relationship is evident from

this definition. In addition to continuity, a healthy parent-child relationship fosters attachment. Ashton (1978) notes "the single most important contribution to the development of attachment is most likely the quality of interaction between parent and child" (p. 33). Degree of attachment is an important factor in examining the adolescent's perceptions of his/her parents.

The literature reveals that one of the major tasks to be accomplished during adolescence is a disengagement from the parents as primary love objects (Blos, 1962). This process of disengagement precipitates a symbolic object loss reaction in the adolescent. Where divorce has taken place, the adolescent experiences an actual object loss. Sorosky (1977) states:

The divorce experience results in an actual object loss, in contrast to the symbolic loss experienced by the adolescent as he/she emancipates him/herself from the family. (p. 129)

Further, this actual object loss puts the adolescent in the position of having to detach himself/herself prematurely from the parents (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974).

The healthy process of mourning following object loss is described by Laufer (1966) as "libidinal detachment from the object and expect that this process will finally result in renewed interest in the outside world and an ability to cathect other objects" (p. 289). Should this process not be carried to completion, the result is an impairment of the adolescent's ego functioning and a distortion of the rela-

tion to the self and the outside world (Laufer, 1966). Hess and Camara (1979) also concluded that several of the consequences of divorce were that, not only was the child confronted with loss but it also presented the child with the need to "reorder internal representations of familiar external patterns" (p. 82). In addition, "concepts of roles of father and mother and perceptions of the permanence of relationships must be revised" (p. 82). Kelly and Wallerstein (1979) indicate that this object loss may result in a fear of abandonment. This fear of abandonment may become generalized to others in the environment. Anthony (1974) refers to this as a neurosis of abandonment. In this case, the adolescent approaches new relationships cautiously "with the expectation of being left, rejected or of losing love" (Sorosky, 1977, p. 126). Thus, the adolescent no longer views herself/himself or his/her external world in quite the same way, for his/her vital relationships have been altered by the event of divorce. The adolescent's view of the external is dramatically affected by loss perceived as abandonment and fears that further losses may occur.

Unconsciously, the child may feel that he/she was responsible for the separation and thus develop the guilt feelings often associated with the resulting loss of a parent (Symonds, 1949). Laufer (1966) stated that these guilt feelings attached to the loss of a love object may interfere with the adolescent's development, particularly in disturbances of sexuality.

McDermott (1970) concluded that often children of divorce run away from home as a means of escaping the hostile and aggressive feelings they may have, along with those which they perceive in others. It is these perceptions which are vital in understanding the adolescent's behaviours and feelings following the loss of a parent, with some awareness that distortions of reality are inevitable in these circumstances.

The feelings of loss and abandonment following divorce can be minimized by parental exhibitions that the child is still wanted. The literature clearly reveals that a sense of attachment to the parents, despite their separation, may alleviate some of the adolescent's doubts during the aftermath of divorce. Should the parents demonstrate continued interest in the child, it will lessen the degree to which the child perceives himself as unloved and abandoned. In essence, parents who distance and detach themselves from the adolescent will only act to reinforce their notion of being unwanted. In one particular study, Doris Jacobson (1978a) examined the association between a child's psycho-social adjustment and the amount of time and activity lost with each parent following separation. Her findings regarding the 51 children involved concluded that there was a significant association between time lost with fathers and the child's current adjustment. Maladjustment scores were found to be higher in children who spent less time with father. Time and activity lost with mothers did not produce maladjustment

scores as significant as those for fathers. Similarly, in her study regarding child adjustment and parent-child communication, Jacobson (1978c) found maladjustment scores to be higher in those children who received little or no attention from parents in dealing with the separation, and who received little encouragement to discuss the separation following the event.

Nurturance

Theodore Lidz (1968) describes the necessity of the parent to provide nurturance to the child:

Nurturance concerns more than filling the child's physical needs, it involves his emotional needs for love, affection, and a sense of security; it includes providing the opportunity for utilization of new capacities as the child matures. Proper nurturance requires parents to have the capacity, knowledge, and feeling to alter their ways of relating to the child in accord with his changing needs. (p. 56)

The literature concerning children of divorce supports the view that nurturance is an essential factor in healthy adjustment of the child.

Even before the legal process of divorce takes place, a process of emotional divorce between the child and parent has also begun (Rubin & Price, 1979). Despert (1962) takes the view that divorce, in essence, begins as emotional divorce. The parents lose communication with each other and then with the children. This process may leave children feeling unsure of their relationships with their parents. The emotional upheaval caused by the dissolution of the marriage has critical emotional repercussions for the

children. This is particularly noticeable in the first few years following the divorce according to Hetherington (1979). Hetherington (1979) comments on the findings of an earlier study (1978) in which she examined the divorce experience from the child's perspective:

In the first year after divorce, parents often are preoccupied with their own depression, anger, or emotional needs and are unable to respond sensitively to the wants of the child. During this period divorced parents tend to be inconsistent, less affectionate, and lacking in control over their children. (p. 856)

Kelly and Wallerstein (1979) noted that one of the main fears children experienced after divorce was an anxiety over who would take care of them. McDermott (1968) found that the emotional availability of both mother and father influence a child's response to divorce.

Divorce exposes mothers to personal and social changes. These changes may affect the parent-child relationship. McDermott (1968) concluded that the mother's emotional neediness and her insecurity with her new role as a single parent had a negative influence on the mother-child relationship. Mothers who have to work following divorce are less physically and emotionally available to the child (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1979).

When the father leaves the home, he too becomes less emotionally available to the child. In Wallerstein and Kelly's study (1980), 30% of the children had an emotionally nurturant relationship with the father. This nurturant relationship proved to be a critical factor in healthy ad-

justment of the child. Hetherington et al. (1976) and Weiss (1975) found that after divorce some fathers become less nurturant of their children. Seagull and Seagull (1977) reported that non-custodial fathers would distance themselves emotionally from their children in order to lessen their own pain and the vulnerability they felt following the divorce.

Luepnitz (1979) studied college students whose parents had divorced before the subjects were 16 years of age. She asked these students to describe their experience of the divorce at three phases:

- 1) pre-divorce phase - initial parental conflict
- 2) transition phase - announcement of the divorce through the time that the father had left the house
- 3) post-divorce phase. (p. 80)

Of the sample, 25% found the post-divorce period to be the major stressor. One of the problems noted by this group was that they missed the father for affection and companionship. Kelly and Wallerstein (1979) noted that the child may feel that the father does not care about them when visiting is inconsistent.

In some instances, the adolescent may receive less nurturance as a result of the expectation that he fulfill a nurturing function for the parents. This role reversal is not an uncommon occurrence when there are adolescent children of divorce (Weiss, 1979). Hetherington (1979) stated that divorced mothers of adolescent children rely on them for emotional support.

The parental preoccupation with their own emotional neediness is to the detriment of the children. As would be expected in this situation, the amount of nurturing behaviour exhibited by the parents is lessened. Such physical factors as mothers going out to work and fathers being out of the home also contribute to a decrease in nurturance by the parent. All of these factors may influence how an adolescent perceives his parents in terms of nurturing qualities.

Hostility

The perception of hostility in the parent is a determinant of the quality of adjustment the adolescent will make to divorce. The literature indicates that hostility has a pervasive influence on the parent-child relationship.

Beal (1979), in his clinical interviews with 40 families in the process of, or having divorced, found that the most dysfunctional were those in which, prior to divorce, the parents had fought openly in front of the children and invited them to take sides in marital disagreements. He refers to these families as "child-focused" where parental anxieties are focused on the children. Anthony (1974) found that the nature of the marital conflict previous to divorce influenced child adjustment after divorce. When the parents were hostile children became irritable and aggressive. Jacobson (1978b) studied 51 children 3 to 17 years of age, from 30 families and interviewed these children within

a year of their parents marital separation or divorce. She, too, found that parental hostility was significant in the child's adjustment after separation/divorce. The greater the hostility was between the parents during the separation/divorce period, the greater was the dysfunction in the child. Wallerstein and Kelly (1976) reported that one of the factors associated with disturbance in the latency aged child one year after separation or divorce was that parents continued their conflicts during the one-year period. These findings lend credence to the view that children of divorce are affected by hostility prior to and during the divorcing period. An environment of hostility will affect adjustment of the child to divorce.

Bitter feelings between divorcing partners often continue long after the marriage has dissolved. The interaction between bickering partners has specific significance regarding adjustment of the children to their new family form. This negative interaction so common among partners following divorce has implications for the manner in which children may view their parents and consequently, the existing parent-child relationships.

McDermott (1970) stated that a "child sees the separation as an expression of hostility on the part of the parent; the child then identifies with the hostile, rejecting parent" (p. 423). McDermott (1970) further explains that not only does the child attempt to adapt via the development of

hostile and aggressive feelings, but perceives these feelings in others as well. However, the major contributing factor affecting the adolescents' perception of hostility in a parent appears to be the mutual demeaning which often occurs in these circumstances.

Rubin and Price (1979) state that one of the worst situations occurs when one parent is denigrated by the other. Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) found that there was a tendency by some parents to exclude the absent parent. In one-fifth of their sample, visits with the non-custodial parent were reported to be unpleasurable. In these cases, children lived in an atmosphere of hostility and were used to give angry messages to the other parent. Hetherington (1979) has noted in her study that "when the mother is hostile and critical of the father, the child begins to view the father in a more ambivalent or negative manner and as a less acceptable role model" (p. 854). Weiss (1975) comments that it is not unusual for spouses to be angry or resentful with each other after divorce and states:

Murderous phantasies in which the spouse is the victim do not seem especially rare . . . shared parenting of children provides a convenient vehicle for the expression of postmarital malice. (pp. 101-102)

The review of the literature in this area shows that perception of the parent as hostile will have consequences for the parent-child relationship subsequent to divorce. The adolescent must alter his view of the parents. In turn, the nature of the interaction between parent and child is affected.

Control

Parental control may range from extreme permissiveness to extreme restrictiveness. The exercise of control by the parent is a major factor in adolescent development. The way in which the adolescent perceives the parent in regard to this key variable will have implications for the parent-child relationship.

Alterations in parent-child relationships following divorce frequently include shifts in parenting methods. These shifts have been attributed to the emotional upheavals experienced by the partners. Changes in parenting techniques ranging from extremely permissive to authoritative control occur as a result of these emotional upheavals. In addition, Hetherington et al. (1976) found that after divorce, fathers became freer and less authoritarian. Probably more important is their finding that parents who are caught up in their own distress regarding the divorce tend to be less consistent and effective in their discipline. After examining numerous studies of divorce and its aftermath, Levitin (1979) summarized the findings regarding parental control and noted there was a "lack of control by mothers, who become more restrictive and give orders but do not follow through with appropriate discipline . . . and by fathers, who are initially excessively permissive and indulgent" (p. 7). Symonds (1949) has given an analytical explanation for the possible motivations behind these alterations in parental control:

Sometimes when there is divorce a mother will overgratify her children with her love, as an expression of her emotional needs. Perhaps in addition, in this case, there may be the unconscious tendency to wish to hurt the children (by overprotection) as a way of hurting the father who is still fond of them and devoted to them. (p. 104)

Sorosky (1977) in his review of the psychological effects of divorce on adolescents states that adolescents need environmental controls in the form of firmness, consistency and setting limits. He further posits that divorcing parents are impeded in providing these controls by:

- 1) preoccupation with their own problems,
- 2) guilt secondary to their own acting-out, and
- 3) fear of losing their child's favor to the other parent. (p. 127)

In addition, one parent's attempt at establishing control may be thwarted by the other parent. Sorosky (1977) further states that:

The end result of this parental permissiveness is a deep sense of insecurity on the part of the youngster involved. He/she becomes caught in the vicious cycle of testing limits, going beyond limits without restriction, feeling guilty and retesting the parents in a futile attempt to find a source of punishment and retribution. (p. 127)

In adolescence, the formation of ego controls is largely brought about through continued identification with parental figures. When parents divorce, the adolescent is deprived of one of the primary identification figures. Wallerstein and Kelly (1974) found that divorce signaled a loss of significant role models that were necessary for the development of internal controls. Some of the adolescents in their sample "were unable to contain heightened sexual and

aggressive impulses in the absence of the familiar external reinforcement and threats" (p. 501).

As a result of divorce, parents sometimes become inconsistent in controlling their children. The adolescent's behaviour in the face of this perceived inconsistency will have implications for the parent-child relationship. The move toward healthy adult functioning will be facilitated by the adolescent's perception of positive control by the parent.

Stability

Parents experience a process of detachment and mourning in response to the marital breakdown, not unlike that which is experienced by the offspring of the marriage. Blumenthal (1967), in her mental health survey of 192 families, found that:

Approximately 65% of the reasons which were cited as causes of divorce by the respondents were suggestive of psychiatric disturbance in at least one of the divorcing parties. (p. 68)

Briscoe, Smith, Robbins, Marten, and Gaskin (1973), in their study of 139 divorced persons, found that three-quarters of divorced women and two-thirds of divorced men have had, or currently had, psychiatric illness. The literature makes it clear that the emotional state of the individual partners following their separation has an undeniable influence on the parent-child relationship and parental functioning in general. Hetherington (1979) discusses some of these changes in the child's life situation:

The loss of a parent, the marital discord and family disorganization that usually precede and accompany separation, the alterations in parent-child relations that may be associated with temporary distress and emotional neediness of family members, and other real or fantasized threats to the well-being of the child. (p. 851)

Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) assert that psychologically healthy parents are critical to healthy adjustment in the child. Rubin and Price (1979) concur with these findings when they state that "the functioning of the custodial parent following divorce is one of the central determinants of well-being for the young child after one year" (p. 554). Depression, loneliness, lowered self-worth and helplessness after divorce have been shown to interfere with parenting (Hetherington, 1978).

Kelly and Wallerstein (1979) found that children received less attention following the divorce due to the fact that parents were less sensitive to the child's distress as they were preoccupied with their own distress. These authors state that one of the factors related to fear in the child was the child's worry over a distressed parent (1979). McDermott (1968) noted a deterioration in the mother-child relationship due to the mother's emotional neediness following the divorce.

The nature of the parental conflict was found by Anthony (1974) to influence how a child's reactions to divorce were manifested; when the marriage was devoid of affect, children had flat reactions; when the interaction between parents was neurotic, children were exploited and

when the conflict was hostile, children tended to be aggressive and irritable.

In the "child focused" families studied by Beal[^](1979), children were found to become parents of the parents. In these cases, an isolated parent was taken care of emotionally by the child. Conflicts in these families were automatically assumed to involve children in order that the parents' needs be satisfied. Wallerstein and Kelly (1979) found that the sense of loss experienced by the adolescent following divorce is accentuated by an anxious perception of their parents' loneliness.

This evidence suggests that parental stability is an important factor in how a child reacts to divorce. When the adolescent perceives instability in the parent he must react in some way. The literature appears to support the idea that the perception of instability in the parent may lead to dysfunction.

Dependability

A factor essential to providing an environment which produces a healthy adolescent is a dependable relationship with the parent. If the adolescent perceives the parent as dependable, the parent-child relationship will be enhanced. Adverse developmental consequences to the adolescent may be the result of the perception of the parent as unreliable.

Noted to be significant factors in post-divorce adjustment is the availability of the non-custodial parent

and the increased importance of the relationship with the custodial parent (Hetherington, 1979). This finding is supported by Kelly and Wallerstein (1979) who noted that both younger and older children worried about the continuity of the parent-child relationship. Younger children felt that like their parents' marriage, their relationship with their parents could end. In terms of the older children, the authors state:

When a father failed to call or visited only sporadically, they feared he had lost interest or no longer cared about them. When a mother came home late from work, children admitted to fears of abandonment, fears they had not felt before the divorce. (p. 53)

One of the most vital concerns in perceiving the parents as dependable resides in the issue of contact with the non-custodial parent. Wallerstein and Kelly (1979) state that "the continuation of contact between the child and the parent who has not retained custody is a crucial issue" (p. 471). In 17% of the 131 children in Wallerstein and Kelly's sample, there was erratic contact between the child and the non-custodial parent. These children suffered due to the inconsistency of these visits (1980). These authors reiterate one of the most crucial factors to good adjustment of the child following divorce is:

a stable, loving relationship with both parents, between whom friction had largely dissipated, leaving regular, dependable visiting patterns that the parent with custody encouraged. (1980, p. 71)

However, the conclusions of a study conducted by Hetherington et al. (1979) indicated that "there is little continuity

between the quality of pre and post-separation parent-child interaction, particularly for fathers" (p. 855).

The adolescent's perception of dependability in the parent will influence the character of the parent-child relationship. The literature reveals that continuity within these relationships is basic to healthy development of the child.

Identification

The perception of the parent as a person whom the adolescent identifies with is central to healthy adjustment following divorce. Of particular importance is the perception of the like sex parent as an object of identification. The role of the parent is crucial in regard to these identifications.

At the base of the process of identification with a parent is the child's perception of himself/herself as like that parent because of the similar qualities he/she feels he/she may possess (Blos, 1962). Lidz (1968) notes that identifications with the parents remain basic to development during adolescence. As noted earlier in the review, Erikson (1968) postulates that the major task of adolescence is the achievement of an ego identity developed mainly through identifications with the same sex parent. McDermott (1970), in his study examining the emotional ramifications of children of divorce, found that:

The renunciation of a loved object (in the oedipal [sic] period) is facilitated by becoming like that object . . . there were links between the presenting symptoms of the oedipal-aged [sic] children in our series and their image of the devalued father which they appeared to be living and reenacting. (p. 425)

In becoming like the absent parent the child is able to maintain some connection to that object. Some authors suspect that the child identifies with the absent parent in an effort to cope with the loss experienced. McDermott (1968) noted that the types of acting-out that children exhibited corresponded to the description of the absent parent. He suggests that these children deal with the loss experienced by identifying with a part or fantasized part of the absent parent.

Anthony (1974) indicated that father absence may not be as harmful as the resultant manipulations and role playing that ensue. He states "The remaining parent puts the child into the role of the absent parent - the child puts the remaining parent into the role of the absent parent" (1974, p. 471). The potential ramifications of this type of role playing are startling. Another type of confusion in identification may result when the custodial parent forces the child to identify with him/her. This may be harmful, particularly to a male child and results in anxiety (Anthony, 1974).

Since children identify with the same sex parent, mutual accusations of sexual infidelity or inadequacy may instill fear in the child that he/she may take on these

characteristics. The adolescent may act out sexually to work through his/her fears of sexual inadequacy or to fulfill the prophecy of poor impulse control (Sorosky, 1977).

The identifications the adolescent establishes with the parents are salient factors in perception of the parent after divorce. These identifications influence the adolescent's interactions with both mother and father. The parents' provisions for healthy identifications foster adolescent growth following divorce.

Idealization

The shift in relationships following divorce may lead to changed perceptions of the parent by the adolescent. These changed perceptions may surface in the form of idealization or deidealization of the parent. Idealization is closely related to the process of identification. Laufer (1964) states that "idealization always carries with it overvaluation, and therefore distortion of that which is idealized" (p. 200).

In their study of 21 adolescents, Wallerstein and Kelly (1974) noted that the divorce process forced a deidealization of the parent. The youngster in these circumstances has felt betrayed by the divorce. Thus, he/she retaliates and defends himself/herself against feelings of loss by the expression of anger. The parents are often viewed in a less idealized light as a result of their decision to divorce. This view is supported by Sorosky (1977)

who notes that after divorce, adolescents "will often react by splitting the parents into good and bad, by idealizing one and devaluing the other" (p. 129).

It has been suggested by Beal (1979) that one of the parents, usually the mother, takes on the more emotionally responsive role. This parent often makes the decision to divorce and is open about the divorce with the children. Paradoxically, this is the parent who the children blame for the divorce because they are perceived as being emotionally responsible for the divorce. Beal (1979) states that "these custodial parents must be prepared to have focused on them the major portion of the children's negative feelings regarding the divorce" (p. 147). Weiss (1975) confirms this finding when he says that children may become angry at the parent they believe is responsible for the separation. Another explanation for devaluing one parent and idealizing the other may be that the father is perceived as a "nice guy" because he does things with the children that they enjoy while the mother becomes the one who exercises control (Anthony, 1974).

Miller (1974) noted that "Those adolescents who lose their parents by divorce are in some ways in a more difficult position than those who lose a parent through death" (p. 383). Loss of a parent due to death results in idealization of the absent parent by the child. This differs distinctly from the perceptual revisions of those children who have an absent parent as a result of divorce. In these circumstances,

usually the absent parent is devalued by the custodial parent. Non-custodial fathers have expressed concern regarding their devaluation as a parent following divorce. In Greif's survey (1979) of 40 middle-class, non-custodial fathers the subjects perceived two of their major difficulties as feelings of loss and being devalued as a parent.

The parents themselves can unintentionally contribute to a revision of the child's perceptions. One parent may make bitter comments against the other with the intent of easing his/her own pain, or gaining the child as an ally. This behaviour can also serve the purpose of providing the impetus for the adolescent's changed perceptions. Hetherington (1979) found this revision of children's perceptions to be the case:

The frequent mutual demeaning and criticism of divorcing parents leads to dissonance, questioning, and often precipitous revision and deidealization of children's perception of their parents. (p. 854)

Summary

This chapter began with an examination of the children of divorce in the context of current trends in divorce and custody. A section on the adolescent and divorce as the focus for the study was presented. It was followed by a review of the literature pertaining to adolescent development. Parent-child relationships were discussed as a background for exploring the adolescents' perceptions of their parents. In addition, the processes involved in perceiving others were explained. A description of the eight

variables found to possibly be significant in determining how the adolescent might perceive his/her parents subsequent to divorce was given.

This review was limited to the interpersonal aspects of individuals following divorce. The literature revealed a gap in the area of research pertaining to adolescents' perceptions of their parents in post-divorce situations. The present study explores this area in depth.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter begins with a classification of the research project including the rationale for having made this choice. A statement of the research question is then presented and concepts pertinent to the research inquiry are defined. The population and sample studied in order to answer the research question are described. The data collection method is explained as are the procedures utilized for the analysis of the data. The limitations of the study are stated, in addition to the means for controlling for them.

Classification of the Research

The development of the research design began with the knowledge gained in reviewing the literature on children of divorce. Few attempts have been made at precise measurement in regard to the child's experience of divorce and, in particular, the adolescent experience. Ambert (1980), in discussing the limitations of research already undertaken, notes that "there are areas of research that are totally unexplored and this prevents us from gaining an overall perspective on the effects of divorce on children" (p. 184).

A research design was chosen keeping in mind that the current state of knowledge is lacking. It is the contention of the researchers that a sound knowledge base in this area is imperative if any further empirical research is to prove fruitful.

A comprehensive review of the literature indicated an absence of specific information pertaining to how the adolescent perceives his/her parents. Consequently, the researchers were forced to extract possible influential factors from sources deemed relevant to this topic. An exploratory investigation was undertaken with the purpose of identifying variables related to the adolescent's perceptions of his/her parents post-divorce, as this was an area in which knowledge was lacking (Polansky, 1975). In addition, further systematic investigation in this area will be facilitated by the hypotheses generated by this study.

Exploratory studies have been described as follows:

Formulating a problem for more precise investigation or for developing hypotheses. An exploratory study may, however, have other functions: increasing investigators' familiarity with the phenomenon they wish to investigate in a subsequent, more highly structured study, or with the setting in which they plan to carry out such a study. (Selltiz, Wrightsman, & Cook, 1976, p. 91).

The purpose of exploratory studies has been defined in more specific terms. Conceptually defining variables and methods for their measurement are included in Polansky's (1975) definition of the purpose of exploratory research. These

studies also involve the formulation of methodological approaches, and the exploration of the feasibility of research (Polansky, 1975).

Exploratory research can be further sub-typed into three categories:

- 1) studies which combine features for exploration and description;
- 2) studies which use specific data collection devices in searching for ideas; and
- 3) studies which involve the manipulation of independent variables in demonstrating the feasibility of practical techniques or programs. (Tripodi, Fellin, & Meyer, 1969, p. 49)

The research into adolescent's perceptions of custodial and non-custodial parents can be sub-typed as exploratory-descriptive. The primary purpose of an exploratory-descriptive study is

to develop ideas and theoretical generalizations. Descriptions are in both quantitative and qualitative form, and the accumulation of detailed information by such means as participant observation may be found. (Tripodi et al., 1969, p. 49)

An exploratory-descriptive research design was selected as most appropriate for this study. Such a design facilitates the search for insights and hypotheses for further research on the adolescent's perception of custodial and non-custodial parents.

The Research Question

This research examines the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents. As the study explores an area in which little systematic research has

been undertaken, no hypothesis was formulated. The following research question was utilized to give direction to the project:

What are the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents?

The researchers speculated that there may be a distinction between how the adolescent views his custodial parent as opposed to the parent who does not have custody. A previous study concluded that the children in their sample split their views by perceiving one parent as all "good" and the other parent as all "bad" following divorce (Abarbanel, 1979).

From the review of the literature, eight variables which may contribute to the way in which the adolescent views his parents after divorce were identified. The eight variables were:

- 1) degree of attachment
- 2) degree of nurturance
- 3) degree of hostility
- 4) degree of control
- 5) degree of stability
- 6) degree of dependability
- 7) degree of identification
- 8) degree of idealization.

These variables were utilized to construct the data gathering instrument in order to generate quantitative data to answer the research question.

An additional three variables were linked to the eight variables derived from the review of the literature. These three variables were used to construct the research instrument in order to generate qualitative data to answer the research question. The three variables were:

- 1) the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents
- 2) the adolescents' perceptions of the quality of their relationship with the custodial and non-custodial parents
- 3) the adolescents' perceptions of how they are viewed by their custodial and non-custodial parents.

Conceptual Definitions

Conceptual definitions of the terms utilized in the study have been explicated as follows.

Adolescence "refers to the experience of passing through the unstructured and ill-defined phase that lies between childhood and adulthood" (Sebald, 1977, p. 4). A less simplified definition of adolescence is given by Eichorn (1968). She defines adolescence as an epoch "marked by striking biological events that signal the initiation of the sequence of biochemical, physiological, and physical transformations of child into adult" (p. 84). It is a period of development fraught with physical, emotional, cognitive, psychological and social changes.

Perception is reality as we see it. Perception can be defined as:

The use of the senses to obtain information about the world, its objects, events, and conditions or to remain in contact with the world; its objects, events, and conditions. (Schiff, 1980, p. 371)

Perception, as it occurs within a social context, may be defined as social perception. Social perception refers to "the obtaining and using of information about people and

social encounters and the formulation of judgements about them" (Schiff, 1980, p. 371). Because we are studying the adolescent's perceptions of other persons, namely, the custodial and non-custodial parents, a definition of person perception has been selected. Person perception is defined by Tagiuri (1958) thus:

In speaking of person perception or of knowledge of persons, we refer mostly to the observations we make about intentions, attitudes, emotions, ideas, abilities, purposes, traits - events that are, so to speak, inside the person. (p. x)

Divorce is the "legal process by which a valid marriage may be dissolved. The term is also used to mean the judgement (properly called decree) that dissolves the marriage" (Kronby, 1979, p. 83). Thus, in the true legal sense, divorce has been defined as:

An order by a Supreme Court Judge (or a County Court Judge sitting as a Supreme Court Judge), after a formal hearing, the effect of which is to legally dissolve a marriage. (Toronto Community Law Program, 1976, p. 18)

Custody is defined by The Canadian Law Dictionary as "the care and keeping of anything; safekeeping, protection, charge, care, guardianship" (1980, p. 103). Custody, within the Family Law Reform Act, is clearly specified in legislative terms as an order:

Upon application the court may order that either parent or any person have custody of or access to a child in accordance with the best interests of the child and may at any time alter, vary or discharge the order. (Statutes of the Province of Ontario, 1978, ch. 2, sec. 35(1), p. 22)

That person, having been granted custody via this order, is viewed as the custodial parent. Non-custodial parent

is defined for the purpose of our research as the parent who is not granted custody as per the above definitions.

Operational Definitions

For the purpose of this study, the following operational definitions were utilized.

An adolescent is defined as a person between the ages of 12 and 16. Perception describes those personality traits assigned to the custodial and non-custodial parent by the adolescent. Custodial parent refers to that parent having been granted custody of the adolescent through a court order. Non-custodial parent is used to describe the parent not granted custody. In this study, the identification of the custodial and non-custodial parent was based on the reports of the adolescents.

The Setting

The setting for the study was Essex County, located in Southwestern Ontario. A self-help group situated in the city of Windsor was utilized for the research project. This group is the Windsor-Essex Chapter of the Parents Without Partners organization.

Parents Without Partners was chartered March 21, 1958 in order to provide an organization in which the interests and welfare of single parents and their children might be met (Egleson & Egleson, 1961). Lieberman, Borman, and Associates (1979) classify Parents Without Partners in the

category of stress coping, and support groups. In Parents Without Partners the common status is single parenthood and its accompanying stress. The aim of these groups is "the amelioration of this stress through mutual support and the sharing of coping strategies and advice" (Lieberman et al., 1979, p. 242).

One of the primary concerns of parents in this group is the welfare of their children. Activities and programmes have been developed to assist in the solution of problems in bringing up children alone. Emotional adjustment and the legalities regarding custody and child visitation rights are some of the areas of conflict with which members may receive assistance. In order to belong to the Parents Without Partners organization you must be the parent of a living child and single through death, divorce, separation, or never married (Egleson & Egleson, 1961).

The Sample

Ideally, the study of the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents would involve the total adolescent population in the Windsor area whose parents are legally divorced. Since this was not feasible, for this particular study, in terms of time availability and economic factors, a sample was utilized. The sample was selected from the adolescent population of the Windsor-Essex Chapter of the Parents Without Partners organization.

The president and vice-president of Parents Without Partners were approached to explore the possibility of using teens from their organization as subjects for the study. A letter (Appendix A) was subsequently written requesting permission to carry out the research. Formal permission was received in the form of a letter from the president (Appendix B). Written consent was obtained from both the parent (Appendix C) and the adolescent (Appendix D) to ensure that ethical standards were maintained.

The sample consisted of 26 adolescents who voluntarily agreed to participate in the study and had parental permission to be interviewed. The adolescents were children of members of Parents Without Partners. Of these 26 adolescents, two were pre-test subjects. They were included in the sample as the instrument was not revised as a result of pre-testing and their parents were members of the Parents Without Partners organization. The parents of all subjects selected for this study must have been legally divorced and custody must have been awarded to one parent.

Thus, it can be stated that the sample was purposive. Selltitz et al. (1976) discuss the strategy underlying purposive sampling:

With good judgement and an appropriate strategy one can handpick the cases to be included in the sample and thus develop samples that are satisfactory in relation to one's needs. A common strategy of purposive sampling is to pick cases that are judged to be typical of the population in which one is

interested, assuming that errors of judgement in the selection will tend to counterbalance each other.
(p. 521)

Such a sampling method fits the purpose of this study as it will enable data to be generated in order to answer the research question.

Data Collection Method

The interview, as opposed to other methods of data collection, was chosen by the researchers for the following reasons:

- 1) the interview is more conducive to obtaining feeling level responses, as the researchers are in a position to provide a comfortable atmosphere. (Jahoda, Deutsch, & Cook, 1951, p. 158)
- 2) the flexibility of the interview enables the researchers to elicit information in a sensitive area. (Polansky, 1975, p. 133)
- 3) the interview allows any new insights to be explored in depth. (Jahoda et al., 1951, p. 157)

The interview offered many advantages. Completion rates are higher with the use of interviews when compared with the questionnaire. In addition, the personal interview provides the flexibility to clarify any misinterpretations for the respondent (Selltitz et al., 1976, pp. 296-297). This project required a method of data collection which enabled the researchers to handle the topic with sensitivity. The personal interview seemed to be the most appropriate for such a task as:

The interview is the more appropriate technique for revealing information about complex, emotionally laden subjects or for probing the sentiments that may underlie an expressed opinion. (Seltiz et al., 1976, p. 297)

The Research Instrument

The research instrument was a structured interview schedule (Appendix E). It was developed solely by the researchers and based upon information compiled through an extensive literature review. Each of the sections was designed with a particular purpose according to the type of information needed for the study. The interview schedule contained both open and close-ended questions.

In the first section of the instrument (Appendix E, Section A) demographic data was collected via fixed-alternative questions designed to yield the description of the sample. Closed-ended questions were used because they yield quantifiable data amenable to statistical manipulation, explicit interpretation, and greater precision (Miller, 1964). Polansky (1975) further describes the advantages of fixed-alternative questions:

If there are questions with fixed-alternative answers, all respondents are exposed to the same stimulus, error is thereby reduced, and reliability is presumably strengthened. Tabulation and analysis of data are also expedited. (p. 136)

The second section (Appendix E, Section B) of the schedule was comprised of ten open-ended questions. There were five questions which applied to perceptions of the mother (questions 1, 2, 5, 6, 9) and five questions which applied to perceptions of the father (questions 3, 4, 7, 8, 10). Open-ended questions are indicated when the issue is complex and the scope of the issue is unknown (Selltiz et al.,

1976). The aim of this research is the exploration of the adolescents' perceptions of their parents. This is both a complex and a relatively unknown area. Open-ended questions were also used to generate qualitative data which "1) leads to new insights, 2) makes clear the nature of relationships demonstrated statistically, and 3) leads to hypotheses or ideas for further research" (Jahoda et al., 1951).

Open-ended questions were included in the instrument in order to elicit the adolescents' perceptions of:

- 1) their custodial and non-custodial parents
(questions 1, 3, 5, 7)
- 2) the quality of their relationship with the
custodial and non-custodial parent
(questions 2, 4, 9, 10)
- 3) how they are viewed by their custodial and
non-custodial parents
(questions 6, 8).

The researchers were guided by Livesley and Bromley (1973) who concluded that the simplest means of obtaining a child's perception of a person is by directly asking for a description of the person in question. In order to improve responses, probes were added to each of these questions.

The final section of the instrument contained 64 fixed-alternative statements (Appendix E, Section C). These statements were designed by the researchers to measure quantitatively the adolescents' perceptions of their parents. Thirty-two of these statements applied to the adolescent's perception of the custodial parent. An equal number applied

to the adolescent's perception of the non-custodial parent. The items for each parent were identical. Statements for mother and father were separated to avoid confusing the respondent. These statements were randomized to reduce any systematic bias that might occur in the responses. The thirty-two items addressed the eight variables which were isolated following the researchers' review of the literature. There were four items per variable. These four items were balanced with two items on the positive pole and two on the negative pole of the variable (Appendix F). Somewhat neutral statements were utilized so that the respondent would not avoid the extreme choices. A Likert-type scale was used in which subjects indicated agreement or disagreement to each item on a five-point continuum. The points on the scale were: strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, and strongly disagree. Adolescents were given a copy of this five-point scale to assist them in responding to the fixed-alternative statements.

A validity test was carried out to ensure that the instrument would measure what it was intended to measure. The content of the instrument was judged by seven professionals in the Windsor community (5 social workers, 2 psychologists). On the basis of their knowledge of adolescence and parent-child relationships, the judges were asked to scrutinize the content of the instrument. Their comments resulted in minor revisions to the instrument. In the

section on demographic and descriptive data, changes were made in the transition statements. Probes were added to each of the open-ended questions and question order was altered. In the final portion of the instrument, wording was revised and one item was replaced.

A pre-test was administered to five adolescents who met the criteria necessary for the purpose of our study. As mentioned earlier, two of these adolescents had parents who were members of Parents Without Partners and were subsequently included in the sample. The other three adolescents could not be included in the sample as their parents were not members of the Parents Without Partners organization. By pre-testing, the reliability of the instrument was improved. Festinger and Katz (1953) reported three purposes for pre-testing research instruments:

- 1) to develop the procedures for applying the research instrument so that, for example, the scale or schedule can be used effectively with respect to the time it takes to administer,
- 2) to test the wording of questions so that they are suited to the understanding of the audience, and
- 3) to ensure, as far as is practical, that the specific questions or observations are really getting at the variable for which a measure is needed. (p. 83)

Following the pre-test, subjects were asked whether there were any statements or questions that were unclear. The subjects were also asked whether the instrument omitted anything pertinent to their view of their parents. No revisions were necessary as a result of pre-testing.

The Collection of the Data

The Parents Without Partners organization had delegated the chairperson of their social committee to assist the researchers. This person checked the membership list for those individuals who met the criteria for the study. These parents and adolescents were telephoned initially by the social committee chairperson. Potential participants were informed of the study and asked if they might be interested in participating. Those who indicated an interest in the project were told to expect telephone contact from one of the researchers. Names, phone numbers and addresses for these persons were then obtained with the permission of the organization.

The researchers then contacted the parents and adolescents by telephone. The purpose of the research was explained further and any questions about the research project were answered. This initial contact allowed the researchers to obtain informal consent from the parent and the adolescent. An appointment time for the adolescent to be interviewed was also arranged. Participants were informed that the interview would last approximately one and a half hours and would be conducted at their home. Confidentiality was assured. The researchers also informed these individuals that formal consents had to be signed by both the adolescent and parent prior to the interviews.

The researchers contacted a total of 47 adolescents and/or their parents. Of these, 24 were interviewed.

Those adolescents who were not interviewed did not meet the criteria of the study. A full discussion of the sampling criteria may be found under Sample, pp. 55-57.

Each researcher was responsible for interviewing one-half of the sample. On arrival at the home of the subjects both the parent and the adolescent were asked to sign consent forms. This procedure served the added purpose of allowing the researchers to create an atmosphere of comfort. Adolescent and parent were put at ease prior to the interview by talking informally with them.

Once consents were obtained, the researcher sought a private setting within which to conduct the interview. Interviews were conducted in places where respondent and researcher would not be disturbed, i.e., in a room in the home, outside in the yard, in a park nearby. In this way, confidentiality and privacy in the interview were maintained.

The interview with the adolescent began with informal conversation usually unrelated to the research project. This helped to put the adolescent at ease (Selltiz et al., 1976). Subsequently, the researcher gave the adolescent a verbal message that the interview would begin. From this point, both questions and statements were asked as printed on the interview schedule.

This ensured reliability and validity (Selltiz et al., 1976). The responses to the open-ended questions were recorded as close to verbatim as possible.

The researchers collaborated prior to conducting the interviews. This served to minimize the variation which could occur given that two interviewers were used (Selltiz et al., 1976). This process was often repeated during the data collection phase of the project. Homogeneity was increased by ensuring uniformity of recording procedures, interviewing techniques, and administration of the interview. Possible errors resulting from mechanical factors such as lack of space to record responses were reduced by being attentive to preparation of materials (Selltiz et al., 1976). The researchers manipulated the environment as much as was possible to produce conditions conducive to interviewing.

Data Analysis

Quantitative Analysis

According to Selltiz et al. (1976) the process of data analysis includes: coding the interview replies or observations, tabulating the data and performing statistical computations. The quantitative data were coded so that categories were exhaustive, mutually exclusive and derived from a single classificatory principle (Selltiz et al., 1976). A scheme for scoring the eight major variables contained in the fixed-alternative section was devised.

A subject's score on a variable was the sum of the four item scores for that variable. Scores on the two positive items ranged from 1 for "strongly disagree" to 5 for "strongly agree." Scores on the two negative items ranged from 1 for "strongly agree" to 5 for "strongly disagree." The subject's score on a variable had a possible range of 4 to 20. The greater the score value, the more positive was the subject's perception of the parent in relation to that variable. The variable hostility was labelled on the negative end of the scale, while the other seven variables were labelled on the positive end of the scale. For this reason, a greater score value on the variable hostility may be misinterpreted to indicate an increase in the perception of hostility. However, the positive pole of this variable was friendliness as noted in Appendix F. The quantitative data was subsequently tabulated in preparation for statistical analysis.

Statistical analysis was performed using the Statistical Analysis System (Helwig & Council, 1979). The procedure univariate was used in the calculation of measures of central tendency and variability for the variables in the study. In addition, frequency distributions were derived using this procedure. The t test, F ratio and Pearson's r were utilized in the analysis of bivariate relationships. Multiple regression analysis was undertaken to identify relationships among the eight variables

which measured the adolescent's perceptions. A t-test was performed to discover the difference between means for the adolescent's perceptions of the custodial parent and the adolescent's perceptions of the non-custodial parent. Elaboration of procedures used may be found in the data analysis chapter.

For the purpose of the research, the scores obtained on the eight major variables were judged to be on a continuous interval scale. Ferguson (1976) notes that for statistical purposes researchers are justified in treating attitudinal scales as interval. Iverson (1979) states that "a variable is continuous if it always is possible to find a value between two other values" (p. 18). Since the scale used is deemed to have gradations from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree," it meets the criteria for a continuous variable. Polansky (1975) discusses the use of nonparametric techniques and refers to them as a "safe approach" to statistical analysis. However, he cautions that:

The investigator must be aware that in adopting the safe approach, he may be discarding data and weakening his chances of detecting significant differences or relationships. (p. 82)

The use of parametric rather than nonparametric statistics seemed appropriate to the exploratory purpose of the research.

Qualitative Analysis

Schatzman and Strauss (1973) discuss the main emphasis in qualitative analysis as:

Discovering significant causes of things persons and events and the properties which characterize them. . . . He names classes and links one with another, at first with 'simple' statements (propositions) that express the linkages, and continues this process until his propositions fall into sets in an ever increasing density of linkages. (p. 110)

This process was pursued in the analysis of the raw data obtained from the open-ended questions. The researchers relied on the work of Bogdan and Taylor (1975) and of Lazarsfeld (1972) as guides to the analysis. Bogdan and Taylor (1975) state four steps essential to qualitative analysis. These steps are:

- 1) reading all the data through carefully
- 2) noting and coding recurring topics
- 3) constructing typologies, and
- 4) reviewing the literature pertinent to the research. (pp. 82-85)

In developing typologies or a classification scheme, Lazarsfeld (1972) notes these requirements:

- 1) articulation
- 2) logical correctness
- 3) adaptation to the structure of the situation, and
- 4) adaptation to the respondent's frame of reference. (p. 227)

The qualitative analysis proceeded within the structure provided by these authors in keeping with the exploratory purpose of the research.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

The analysis and findings presented in this chapter are based on the data generated from individual interviews conducted with 26 adolescents. This chapter is divided into two major sections according to the types of data generated from these interviews. In the first section, the analysis and findings based on the quantitative data are presented. The analysis and findings based on the qualitative data are presented in the second section of this chapter.

Quantitative Analysis of Data and Presentation of Findings

This portion of the data analysis begins with a description of the sample in relation to its demographic characteristics. The analysis is then divided according to 1) subjects' perceptions of the custodial parent, and 2) subjects' perceptions of the non-custodial parent. Identical procedures for the analysis were followed for subjects' perceptions of custodial and non-custodial parents. Distribution of subjects' scores on the major variables are given. Variables in the first portion of the instrument (demographic) were related to those variables pertaining to the measurement of adolescents' perceptions. Relationships among the major

variables were analyzed. Results of the multiple regressions using each of the major variables as the model variable are reported. Comparison of the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents was the final step in the analysis.

In analyzing bivariate relationships, three types of statistical tests were utilized. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used in the analysis of the relationships between variables of the interval level. In addition, the direction and strength of the relationship was indicated, dependent upon the values of r . T-tests were performed on nominal by interval data where the nominal variable was dichotomized. In this way, the significance of the difference between means for the two classifications was tested. In order to make comparisons between the variables measuring perceptions with those nominal level variables containing more than two classes, analysis of variance was computed using the F ratio. An F ratio was also calculated for the variable rank which was treated as interval for the purposes of the analysis. Further analysis of the relationships among the major variables was carried out using multiple regression analysis. A comparison of subjects' perceptions of the custodial and non-custodial parent completes the quantitative analysis. A t -test was chosen to test the significance of the differences between means for the two sets of observations. The "difference method"

(Ferguson, 1976) was used as it takes into account the correlation between the pairs of measurements.

For each statistic the null hypothesis was tested at the .05 level of confidence. Two-tailed tests were used in testing the null hypothesis for the values of r and t . The results of the analysis are presented only for those variables where significant relationships were found. The parent who had custody and the parent with whom the adolescent lived were common for all respondents. Only tests for one of these variables are reported.

Inappropriate Operationalization of the Parental Control Variable

The variable 'parental control' was intended to measure the degree to which the subjects perceived their custodial parents in terms of their control as parents. After carefully scrutinizing the instrumentation and the scaling procedures for this study, the researchers concluded that the operationalization of this variable was inappropriate. This variable differed in a number of ways from the other seven variables measuring perception. The scaling procedures for these seven variables involved a positive and a negative extreme with two questions (per variable) designed to measure each extreme. The researchers noted, however, that the operationalization of the variable 'parental control' differed in that both extremes of the scale measured negative aspects of this variable. These two negative aspects of parental control were permissiveness and restrictiveness.

Thus, the positive measurement of this variable rested at the midpoint of the scale, unlike the scoring procedures for the other seven variables. In an attempt to correct this inconsistency, alternate scoring procedures were applied to this variable. Despite these alterations, the values assigned seemed to be measuring the negative end of the continuum.

This variable was not operationalized or scored consistently with the other seven variables pertaining to perception and thus could not be compared statistically with them. For these reasons, the results of the computations performed in relation to this variable are not reported in this chapter.

Description of the Sample

There were 26 subjects in the sample. Of these, 15 were female and 11 were male. The subjects ranged in age from 12 to 16 years. The mean age of the respondents was 14.23. The highest proportion of the sample were 15 years of age, representing 26.92% of the sample. Those subjects who were 14 years of age comprised 23.07% of the sample. The number of subjects who were 13 and 16 years of age were distributed evenly with 19.23% in each of the categories. The least represented were the subjects who were 12 years of age, with the remaining 11.5% of the sample. The academic level of the subjects ranged from grades 6 to 11. One subject was in a special education class. More than one-half of the subjects were in grade 8 or 9 (53.83%).

Within the total sample, 9 subjects stated they were working. Of these 9 subjects, 55.55% worked 10 hours or less a week. Another 33.33% worked 16 hours per week. One subject worked 35 hours per week. The mean number of hours worked was 12.11 hours per week. The scores were widely dispersed about the mean ($SD = 9.68$) given that the range was 3 to 35 hours per week for these 9 subjects. Only 1 of the working subjects was male.

The highest proportion (57.69%) of the sample reported that they were of the Protestant religion. Those of the Catholic religion comprised 30.79% of the sample. There were no adolescents who were of the Jewish religion. No religion (7.69%) and Other religion (3.84%) accounted for the remaining 11.53% of the sample.

Custody and Visitation

Twenty-four (92.13%) of the 26 subjects were in the custody of their mothers. The remaining 2 (7.69%) subjects reported being in the custody of their fathers. Contact with the non-custodial parent was reported as being voluntary in most cases (61.54%). Court ordered contact with the non-custodial parent was reported by 4 (15.38%) of the subjects. The remaining 23.08% of the sample were uncertain of how their visits were arranged.

Frequencies of visits were categorized subsequent to data collection. These responses were classified by the number of visits per year with the non-custodial parent.

The mean number of visits per year was 31.38 or approximately two and one-half times per month. Those who visited 52 times per year (once a week) accounted for 23.08% of the sample. Another 26.92% visited 26 times per year (bi-weekly). The frequencies of these visits are reported in Table 3.

Table 3
Visits (per year) with the
Non-Custodial Parent

Number of visits with the non-custodial parent (per year)	Frequency	Percentage
0-9	6	23.07
10-19	3	11.53
20-29	8	30.77
30-39	1	3.85
40-49	0	0.00
50-59	6	23.07
60+	2	7.69
Totals	26	100.00

$M = 31.38, SD = 27.9$

Length of one visit with the non-custodial parent was categorized in terms of the number of hours the subject spent on a usual visit. The length of time spent by the subjects ranged from .03 to 48 hours. Of the 26 subjects, 11 (42.31%) visited for .03 to 4 hours and 10 (38.46%) visited for 5 to 9 hours. The remaining categories, 10 to 24 hours and 25 to 48

hours accounted for 3.85% and 15.38% of the sample, respectively. The mean number of hours per visit was 10.6, with a standard deviation of 15.07 hours. The distribution was positively skewed ($SK = 1.99$). The standard deviation and the skewness of this distribution were not unusual given that the range was 0 to 48 hours for the 26 subjects.

Five (57.69%) of the subjects visited with the non-custodial parent in the non-custodial parent's home. Nine (34.62%) indicated that their visits took place in the custodial parent's home. Two subjects (7.69%) indicated that they visited at a place other than the custodial or non-custodial parent's home. In one case, the subject indicated visiting at a grandmother's or going places such as movies, restaurants or fishing. In the other case, the subject indicated going to a restaurant or the beach as examples of places where the visit with the non-custodial parent took place.

The subjects usually arranged visits with the non-custodial parent (46.15%). In another 42.31% of the cases, the non-custodial parent arranged visits with the subject. The custodial parent arranged visits in 7.69% (2) of the sample. One subject (3.84%) indicated that a sibling arranged visits with the non-custodial parent.

Employment of Custodial and Non-custodial Parents

Of the 26 subjects, 18 (69.23%) reported that their custodial parent was working. The remaining subjects reported that their custodial parent did not work.

The occupations for each parent were classified, subsequent to data collection, according to scales devised by Pineo and Porter (1967). The occupations of the custodial parent as reported by the adolescent were distributed in the following way: clerical and sales, 55.55%; semi-skilled, 27.77%; and unskilled, 16.66%.

Over two-thirds (77.77%) of the subjects reported that these custodial parents worked days. The remaining 22.22% of these working parents were distributed evenly on the afternoon (11.11%) or a swing shift (11.11%). None of the subjects reported that the custodial parent worked midnights.

Subjects reported that the majority (61.11%) of their custodial parents worked 40 hours per week. Another 22.22% of the subjects reported that their custodial parent worked 24 hours or less per week. The mean number of hours worked by the custodial parents was 37.22 hours ($SD = 9.01$).

The percentage of non-custodial parents who were reported to be employed was 69.23%. An additional 3.84% of the subjects were uncertain as to whether their non-custodial parents were employed. The remaining 26.92% reported that their non-custodial parents were unemployed.

The following occupational distributions (Pineo and Porter, 1967) for the non-custodial parent were found from the subjects' reports: 26.92% in both the "semi-skilled" and "not in the labour force" categories; 7.69% in both the

"professional" and "unskilled" categories; and 15.38% in the category entitled "proprietor, managers, and officials of small business."

The majority (52.94%) of the subjects stated that the non-custodial parent worked during the day shift. A total of 35.29% of the subjects stated their non-custodial parent worked alternating shifts. The remaining 11.76% of the subjects reported their non-custodial parent worked the midnight shift.

The subjects reported that those non-custodial parents who were employed worked an average of 53 hours per week. Based on these reports, the number of hours worked were distributed as follows: more than 40 hours per week, 59%; 40 hours per week, 35%; and less than 40 hours per week, 6%. These percentages excluded the two subjects who reported that they were uncertain as to whether the non-custodial parent was employed.

Living Situation of Custodial and Non-custodial Parents

The subjects stated that 80.76% of the non-custodial parents lived in Windsor, Ontario. Another 7.69% of these subjects gave the residence of the non-custodial parent as a city in the province of Ontario, but outside of the county of Essex. Only 3.84% of the subjects gave the non-custodial parent's location as another country (United States). Those subjects who reported the non-custodial parent's whereabouts as unknown totalled 7.69%.

The living arrangements for both the custodial and non-custodial parents were classified following the collection of the data. A total of 73.07% of the sample reported that the custodial parent lived in a single parent living arrangement. Another 7.69% of the subjects reported that the custodial parent lived with a new partner and children from that union. The five remaining categories contained other alternative living arrangements for the custodial parent. Each category accounted for 3.84% of the subjects' responses and were described as: an adolescent living with half-siblings, all with a common mother, but different fathers (half-siblings were from common-law unions); an adolescent living with a half-sibling from a subsequent marriage of the custodial parent; an adolescent living with a half-sibling from one of the non-custodial parent's subsequent marriages; an adolescent living with the custodial parent's common-law partner and a half-sibling from the custodial parent's second marriage; and finally an adolescent living with the custodial parent and this parent's common-law partner..

The subjects' reports of the living arrangements of the non-custodial parents were categorized in a similar manner. The greatest per cent (38.46%) of the subjects stated that their non-custodial parent lived alone. Another 19.23% of the subjects reported their non-custodial parent as living with a common-law partner. Those subjects who reported the non-custodial parent as living with a common-law partner, and the partner's children, equalled

11.53%. Another category accounting for 11.53% of the subjects' responses contained non-custodial parents who resided with that parent's family of origin. An additional 7.69% of the subjects reported that the non-custodial parent was living with siblings of the respondents. Each of the remaining categories contained 3.84% of the non-custodial parents' living arrangements, as reported by the subject. These categories were described by the subjects in the following manner: the non-custodial parent living with a new spouse and the spouse's children from a previous marriage; the non-custodial parent living with a new spouse, grandparents of the subject, and parent's nephew; the non-custodial parent living with his mother and step-father; and finally a non-custodial parent living with other males in a communal living arrangement.

Siblings and Step-siblings of the Subjects

Of the 26 subjects in our sample, 46% reported having three siblings. Twenty-seven per cent of the subjects indicated that they had only one sibling. Subjects stating they had two siblings equalled 15%, followed by 12% reporting they had no siblings. The category containing the mode was that of subjects with three siblings, and the mean calculation was 1.92 siblings.

The sample also contained a number of subjects with step-siblings. The percentage of subjects who stated they had step-siblings totalled 38.46%. The most frequent

number of step-siblings per subject, as calculated from the subjects' responses, equalled one. The mean (for those who had step-siblings) was calculated as 1.38 step-siblings per subject, based upon the data reported by 10 subjects.

Birth Order of the Subjects

The determination of the birth order distribution within our sample was based on the subject's family of origin. Of the total sample, 38.46% of the subjects were found to be first borns. Second borns comprised the next highest percentage of the sample (34.61%). Subjects who ranked third in birth order comprised 11.53%, while fourth borns equalled 15.38% of the sample. In relation to the birth order of the subjects, the mean calculation was 2.03. The median was two (2nd born). The majority (73.07%) of the sample was comprised of subjects who were either first or second born.

Relationship in the Sample

Due to the fact that some of the subjects were related to one another, a new variable was introduced to this study by the researchers, following the data collection. The researchers felt it was significant to include this variable in the analysis of the data.

The new variable was nominal in nature. There were two values to this variable: 1) those who were related in the sample, and 2) those who were non-related in the sample.

There were eight subjects who had a sibling who also was a subject and interviewed by one of the researchers. The subjects were interviewed individually. Thus, there were 16 subjects (61.5%) who were in the related category. The remaining subjects (38.5%) were not related.

Custodial Parent

Distributions of Subjects' Perceptions

Attachment

The mean score on the attachment variable for the 26 subjects was 14.42. The median was 16. Scores were moderately scattered about the mean ($SD = 3.79$). Scores ranged from a minimum of 4 to a maximum of 20. The semi-interquartile range (2.25) also indicates a moderate degree of scatter in the scores. The distribution was negatively skewed ($SK = 1.12$).

Nurturance

The mean was 16.38 for the nurturance variable. The median score for the 26 subjects was 17. Scores showed a moderate degree of scatter as shown by the standard deviation (2.53). Subjects' scores ranged from 9 to 20. The dispersion of scores was also indicated by the semi-interquartile range (1.5). This distribution was skewed to the left ($SK = -1.02$).

Hostility

The value of the mean was 14.46 for this variable. Standard deviation from the mean was 2.8. The distribution was moderately skewed ($SK = -.63$) to the left. The median score for the 26 subjects was 16 with a semi-interquartile range value of 1.75. The overall scores ranged from 8 to 19 on this variable.

Stability

The mean score on the stability variable was 13.53. Scores on this variable showed a moderate degree of scatter about the mean ($SD = 3.65$). The distribution of scores for the 26 subjects was moderately skewed to the left ($SK = -.45$). The average score as expressed by the median was 13. Scores ranged from 4 to 20 with a value of 2.13 for the semi-interquartile range.

Dependability

Scores on this variable ranged from 8 to 20 for the 26 subjects. The mean was 14.53. A median value of 16 was obtained for the scores of the 26 subjects on this variable. Standard deviation from the mean (3.25) was indicative of a mild scattering in the distribution of scores. The value of the semi-interquartile range was 1.25. This distribution was skewed to the left ($SK = -.93$).

Identification

The mean value for this variable was 12.38. A median value of 12 was obtained for this distribution of scores. Scores for the 26 subjects on this variable ranged from 5 to 18. The standard deviation from the mean (4.04) and the semi-interquartile range (4) values indicate that scores were evenly scattered about the mean and median, respectively. This distribution was slightly skewed to the left ($SK = -.38$).

Idealization

Scores for the 26 subjects on this variable ranged from 10 to 20. The central tendency of this distribution was indicated by the values obtained for the mean (14.5) and the median (15). A moderate degree of scatter was shown by the values of the standard deviation (3.25) and the semi-interquartile range (1.75). This distribution of scores was negatively skewed ($SK = -.06$).

The distributions of subjects' perceptions on the seven variables are shown in Figure 1.

Variables Related to the Subjects' Perceptions

Attachment

Those adolescents who were related to other adolescents in the sample differed in their perceptions of attachment in the custodial parent from those who were unrelated in the sample. The t value of 2.42 was significant ($p = .02$) with 24 degrees of freedom.

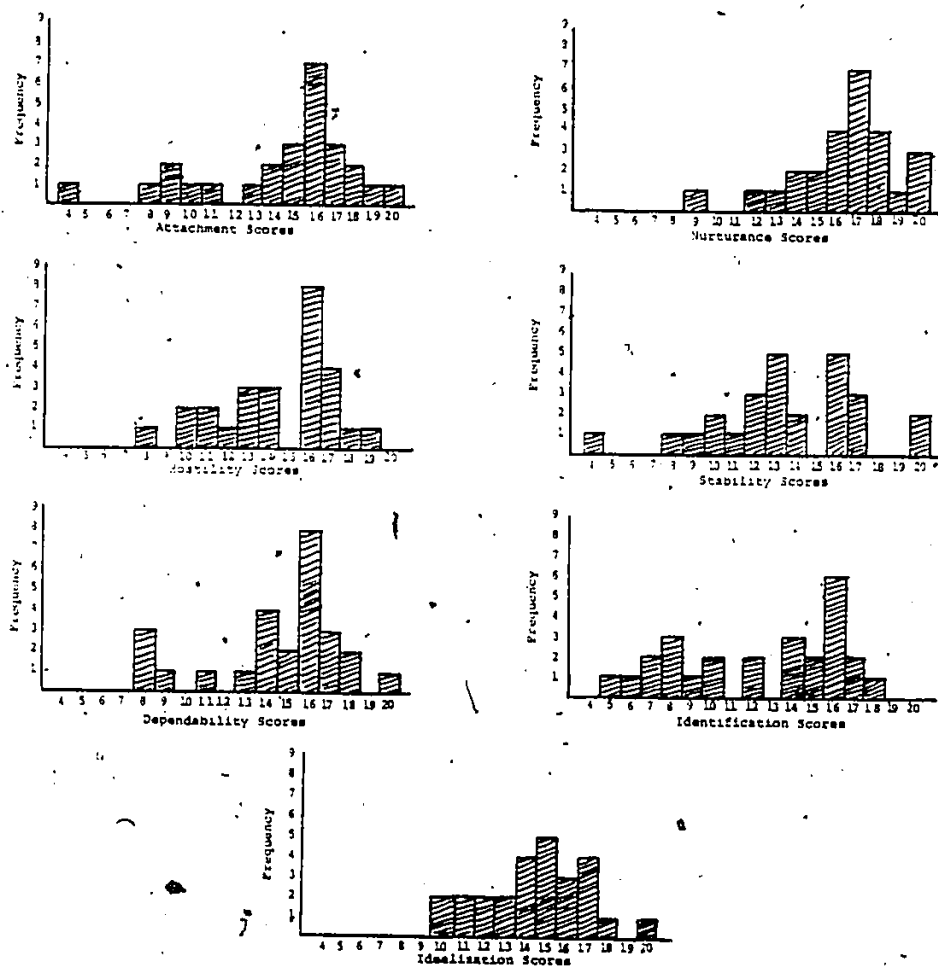


Figure 1. Frequency distributions of adolescents' perceptions of the custodial parent.

The calculations for the analysis of variance revealed that only one variable affected the perception of attachment in the custodial parent. The occupation of the non-custodial parent had an impact on the perception of attachment, as indicated by an F -ratio of significance ($F(5, 20) = 2.68$, $p = .05$).

Nurturance

The degree of nurturance perceived in the custodial parent was moderately associated with the age ($r = -.43$, $p = .03$) and also the grade of the subjects ($r = -.46$, $p = .02$). Both these associations were in a negative direction.

A significant difference between the means was found for those who were related to other adolescents in the sample and those who were unrelated in the sample in their perceptions of nurturance in the custodial parent. A t value of 2.26 was obtained ($p = .03$) with 24 degrees of freedom.

Hostility

Significant differences between means were found for related and unrelated adolescents within the sample in their perceptions of hostility in the custodial parent. The t -test yielded a value of 2.42 with 24 degrees of freedom ($p = .02$).

Stability

There was an association between the hours worked by subjects who were employed, and the degree of perceived stability in the custodial parent ($r = .62$, $p = .05$). Also found to be significantly associated with this variable were the hours worked by the non-custodial parents (in-

cluding those reported as unemployed). The r value in this case equalled .42 ($p = .05$). When those non-custodial parents reported as unemployed were excluded from the correlation, a significant r value (.61) was revealed ($p = .009$). The direction of each of these moderate associations was positive.

Dependability

Differences in the perception of dependability in the custodial parent were found between those adolescents in the sample who were related and those adolescents in the sample who were not related. A t value of 2.06 with 24 degrees of freedom was significant to a .05 confidence level.

Identification

The degree of identification with the custodial parent was moderately associated with the age of the subjects ($r = -.47$, $p = .01$), and the hours worked by those custodial parents reported as employed ($r = -.53$, $p = .02$). These associations were in a negative direction as indicated by the values of the Pearson r . Also found to be associated with identification was the amount of visits with the non-custodial parent as indicated by an r equal to $-.44$ at a probability of .02. This negative relationship was a moderate one.

Differences in the perceptions of the custodial parent on the identification variable were found between those adolescents in the sample who were related and those who were unrelated. The t -test yielded a value of 2.55 with 24 degrees of freedom ($p = .02$).

Idealization

An r value of $-.38$ revealed a moderate association between the academic level of the subjects and the degree of idealization of the custodial parent ($p = .05$). This relationship was negative. An association in a negative direction existed between the degree of idealization of the custodial parent and the amount of visits with the non-custodial parent ($r = -.39$, $p = .05$). This association was moderate to weak.

Those adolescents who were related and who were not related in the sample differed in their perceptions on the idealization variable. A t -test comparing means for the two groups yielded a value of 2.46 ($p = .02$) with 24 degrees of freedom.

Relationships Among the Major Variables Measuring Perceptions

Pearson r 's were calculated on the variables related to the perception of the custodial parent with these same variables. With the exception of two of the correlations, all the associations were found to be significant. There was the absence of significant relationships between: the perceived stability of the custodial parent and identification with the custodial parent; and the perceived stability of the custodial parent and idealization of the custodial parent. Since the correlation coefficients were significant in all but two cases, multiple regressions were computed.

Regressions were done on each of the variables for the custodial parent taking the remaining six variables for the custodial parent into the regression.

Attachment

When the remaining six variables for the custodial parent were regressed on the attachment variable, a significant F value was found ($F(6, 19) = 24.51, p = .0001$). The six variables accounted for 89% of the variation in the attachment variable. The nurturance variable contributed most to the model, judging from the estimated regression coefficients. T-tests performed on the estimates resulted in a significant t value ($t(19) = 5.46, p = .0001$) on the nurturance variable.

Nurturance

The overall regression of the six remaining variables on nurturance resulted in a significant F value ($F(6, 19) = 21.11, p = .0001$). Separate t-tests on the estimated coefficients resulted in a significant value for t on the attachment variable ($t(19) = 5.46, p = .0001$). The attachment variable contributed most to the model taking into account the values of the estimated coefficients. The ability to predict nurturance from a knowledge of the other six variables was improved by 87%.

Hostility

A significant F value ($F(6, 19) = 4.94, p = .003$) was found when the six remaining variables were regressed on the

hostility variable. The six variables together explained 61% of the variation in the hostility scores. The identification variable contributed most to the model, judging from the estimated coefficients. Separate t -tests for the estimated coefficients resulted in a significant t value on the identification variable ($t(19) = 2.09, p = .05$).

Stability

When the remaining six variables were regressed on the stability variable, the F value was not significant. The six variables accounted for 39% of the variation in the stability scores. Judging from the estimated coefficients, dependability contributed most to the model. The t -tests performed on the regression coefficients were not significant.

Dependability

When the remaining six variables were regressed on the dependability variable for the custodial parent, a significant F value was found ($F(6, 19) = 4.79, p = .004$). Nurturance seemed to contribute most to the model, judging from the estimated coefficients. Separate t -tests on the regression coefficients were not significant. The six variables accounted for 60% of the variation in the variable dependability.

Identification

The overall regression of the six remaining variables on identification was significant ($F(6, 19) = 8.51$,

$p = .0001$). Separate t -tests on the estimated coefficients resulted in significant t values on idealization ($t(19) = 2.37$, $p = .03$) and on hostility ($t(19) = 2.09$, $p = .05$). The variables idealization and hostility contributed most to the model taking into account the values of the estimated coefficients. The ability to predict identification from a knowledge of the six other variables was improved by 73%.

Idealization

When the six remaining variables were regressed on the idealization variable a significant F was found ($F(6, 19) = 7.27$, $p = .0004$). The six variables explained 70% of the variation in scores on the idealization variable. The identification variable seemed to contribute most to the model when the values of the regression coefficients are taken into account. The t -tests performed on the estimated coefficients resulted in a significant t value on the identification variable ($t(19) = 2.37$, $p = .03$).

Non-Custodial Parent

Distributions of Subjects' Perceptions

Attachment

The mean score for the 26 subjects on the attachment variable was 11.27. Standard deviation from this mean was 4.1, indicating a moderate scatter in the distribution. The median score (11) approximates the value of the mean.

Scores ranged from 4 to 19 on this variable with a semi-interquartile range value at 4. These scores showed a mild skewness to the right ($\underline{SK} = .03$).

Nurturance


Scores for the 26 subjects on the nurturance variable ranged from 4 to 20. The mean score was 13.92 with a standard deviation from this mean of 4.12. This distribution of scores was negatively skewed ($\underline{SK} = -.66$). The median value was 15.5 with a semi-interquartile range of 3.13.

Hostility

The mean score for the 26 subjects on the hostility variable was 13.92 with a standard deviation from this mean of 4.18. Scores on this variable ranged from 4 to 19. The value of the median (16) and the semi-interquartile range (3.5) show a moderate degree of scatter within the distribution. The distribution of scores was negatively skewed ($\underline{SK} = -1.00$).

Stability

The mean score on this variable was 14.31. The median value was 16 for the scores of the 26 subjects on this variable. Standard deviation from the mean was 3.46 indicating a moderate scatter in the score distribution. Scores ranged from 4 to 19 on this variable. The distribution was negatively skewed ($\underline{SK} = -1.40$). The value of the



semi-interquartile range (1.63) indicated that the scores were evenly scattered about the median value.

Dependability

Scores on the dependability variable ranged from 4 to 20. The mean score on this variable was 11.31 with a standard deviation from this mean of 4.21. The median value for the scores of the 26 subjects was 13 with a value of the semi-interquartile range at 3.13. The distribution of scores was mildly skewed to the left ($SK = -.25$).

Identification

The mean score for the identification variable was 11.04. The value of the standard deviation (4.11) indicated a moderate degree of scatter about the mean. Scores ranged from 4 to 19 for this distribution. Values for the median and the semi-interquartile range were 11 and 3.5, respectively. This distribution was mildly skewed to the left ($SK = -.03$).

Idealization

The value of the mean was 12.27 for the distribution of scores on this variable. Standard deviation from this mean was 3.73. Scores on the variable for the 26 subjects ranged from 6 to 18. This distribution was mildly skewed to the left ($SK = -.18$). Scores were fairly evenly scattered about the mean. This is also shown by the values obtained for the median (12.5) and the semi-interquartile range (3.5).

The distribution of subjects' perceptions on the seven variables are shown in Figure 2.


Variables Related to the
Subjects' Perceptions

Attachment

The degree of perceived attachment in the non-custodial parent was moderately associated with the age of the subjects ($r = -.39$, $p = .05$). The direction of this association was negative. Also found to be significantly associated with this variable was the time spent with the non-custodial parent ($r = .43$, $p = .03$). The calculation of the time spent with this parent involved multiplying the amount of visits by the approximate length of each visit as reported by the subjects. This particular association was moderate and the direction positive.

Nurturance

There was a moderate association between the hours worked by the employed custodial parents and the degree of perceived nurturance of the non-custodial parent as indicated by an $r = .54$ ($p = .02$). In addition, the hours worked by the non-custodial parent (including those reported as unemployed) was found to be moderately associated with the degree of perceived nurturance ($r = .43$, $p = .04$). Both the amount of visits with the non-custodial parent ($r = .56$, $p = .003$), and the time spent with the non-custodial parent ($r = .43$, $p = .03$) were moderately associated with the degree



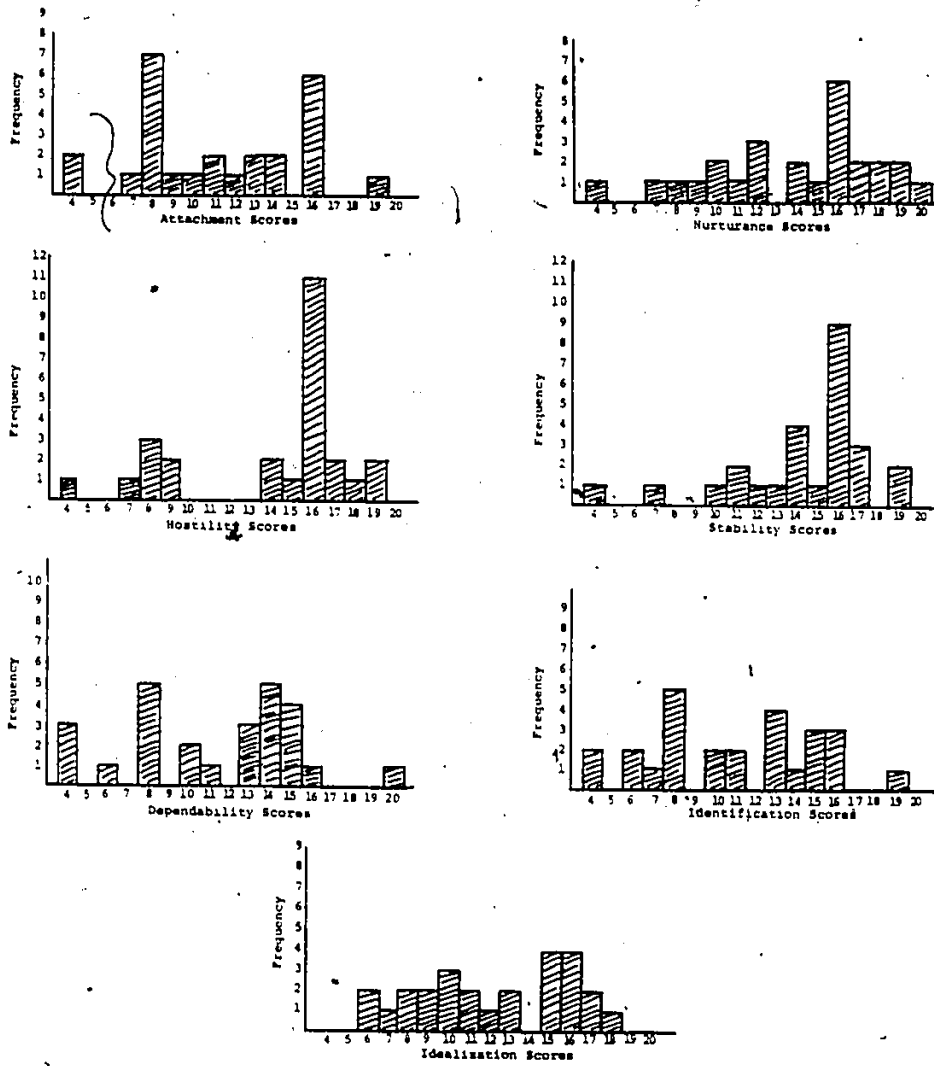


Figure 2. Frequency distributions of adolescents' perceptions of the non-custodial parent

of perceived nurturance of this parent. All of the above associations were positive relationships.

When the geographic location of the non-custodial parent was compared in relation to the perceived nurturance of the non-custodial parent, a significant difference between the means was found. The F value was equal to 4.17 (χ^2 , 22) with a probability of .02. The shift worked by the non-custodial parent also had an impact on the perceived nurturance of the non-custodial parent as indicated by an F (3, 20) = 3.17, with a p = .05.

Hostility

An r value equal to .42 (p = .04) indicated that the degree of perceived hostility in the non-custodial parent associated with the hours worked by the non-custodial parent (including those reported as unemployed). The degree of perceived hostility in the non-custodial parent was also associated with the amount of visits with this parent (r = .43, p = .03). These relationships were positive and moderately associated.

Significant differences between means were found for mother and father custody adolescents in the perception of hostility in the non-custodial parent. The t value of 2.03 with 24 degrees of freedom was significant (p = .05).

A significant difference between the means of the geographic location of the non-custodial parent and the perceived hostility of the non-custodial parent was found when

the F ratio was calculated. In this case, the value for F (3, 22) = 3.05, with a .05 probability.

Stability

There was a moderate association between the hours worked by the employed custodial parents and the degree of perceived stability of the non-custodial parent (r = .47, p = .05). In addition, the hours worked by the non-custodial parent (including those reported employed) was also found to be moderately associated with the degree of perceived stability (r = .52, p = .009). A significant r value of .42 (p = .03) also existed between the amount of visits of the non-custodial parent and the perceived stability of this parent. Each of these reported relationships were positive and moderate.

Those adolescents who had the mother as the custodial parent and those adolescents who had the father as the custodial parent differed in their perceptions of the stability of the non-custodial parent. The t value of 2.78 with 24 degrees of freedom was significant to a .01 confidence level. Differences in perceptions of stability in the non-custodial parent were found between those adolescents who reported the non-custodial parent worked and those who reported the non-custodial parent did not work. A t value of -2.40 with 23 degrees of freedom was significant to .02 level of confidence.

Three of the nominal variables, containing more than two classes, had an effect on the perception of the non-

custodial parent as stable. These variables, and their F ratio calculations, were as follows: religion, $F(3, 22) = 5.20$, $p = .007$; the geographic location of the non-custodial parent, $F(3, 22) = 8.51$, $p = .0006$; and the shift worked by the custodial parent, $F(3, 22) = 3.32$, $p = .04$. In each case, there were significant differences in the means when the variance of these groups was analyzed.

Dependability

Significant moderate associations existed between the degree of perceived dependability and the following variables: the amount of visits with the non-custodial parent, $r = .45$, $p = .02$ (positive relationship); the number of step-siblings as reported by the subjects, $r = -.50$, $p = .01$ (negative relationship); and the number of siblings and step-siblings combined as reported by the subjects, $r = -.51$, $p = .007$ (negative relationship).

A significant difference was found between the means for males and females in their perceptions of the dependability of the non-custodial parent. The t -test yielded a value of 2.43 with 24 degrees of freedom ($p = .02$).

Identification

Identification with the non-custodial parent was moderately associated with both the amount of visits with this parent, $r = .51$, $p = .05$; and the amount of time spent, $r = .39$, $p = .05$. Both of these relationships were positive.

Idealization

An r value equal to .55 ($p = .003$) revealed a significant moderate association existed between the degree of idealization of the non-custodial parent and the amount of visits with that same parent. The amount of time spent with the non-custodial parent was also found to be moderately associated with the degree of idealization of this parent ($r = .45$, $p = .02$). The direction of the relationship for both of these associations was positive.

Relationships Among the Major Variables Measuring Perceptions

When correlations were computed between the variables related to the perception of the non-custodial parent with these same variables, all the associations proved to be significant (Appendix H). Multiple regression analyses were computed on the variables to identify the importance of the different variables. Each of the variables for the non-custodial parent were utilized as the model variable, bringing the remaining six variables into the regression.

Attachment

When a regression analysis was performed with the remaining six variables on the variable attachment for the non-custodial parent, it was found to be highly significant with an F (6, 19) value of 13.30 ($p = .0001$). A significant t value for the variable dependability was found in the separate t -tests on the estimated regression coefficients

($t(19) = 2.49, p = .02$). The six variables accounted for 81% of the variation in the attachment variable.

Nurturance

A regression analysis with the six variables on the variable nurturance revealed an $F(6, 19)$ value of 19.61 with a probability of .0001. As a result of the separate t -tests performed on the estimated regression coefficients, two significant t values occurred. Hostility ($t(19) = 2.44, p = .02$) and idealization ($t(19) = 2.10, p = .05$) seem to be significant in terms of their contribution to the variable nurturance. Eighty-six per cent of the variation in the nurturance variable was accounted for by the six other variables.

Hostility

The $F(6, 19)$ value for the regression analysis of the six variables on the variable hostility equalled 16.79 ($p = .0001$). Two significant t values were indicated when the separate t -tests on the estimated regression coefficients were performed. Significant t values existed for the variables nurturance ($t(19) = 2.44, p = .02$) and identification ($t(19) = 2.74, p = .01$). Together, the six variables explain 84% of the variation in the hostility variable.

Stability

The overall regression was significant ($F(6, 19) = 4.03, p = .009$) when the six variables were regressed on the

variable stability. Judging from the estimated coefficients, idealization seems to be the most important contributant to the variable parental stability. No significant t values were indicated by the separate t -tests performed on the estimated coefficients. The six variables together explain 56% of the variation in the parental stability variable.

Dependability

Regression analysis of the six remaining variables on the variable dependability resulted in a significant F (6, 19) value equal to 4.53 with a probability of .005. Fifty-nine per cent of the variation in the dependability variable was accounted for by the six other variables. From the separate t -tests on the estimated regression coefficients, a significant t value was found for the variable attachment (t (19) = 2.49, p = .02).

Identification

The overall regression of the six variables on the identification variable was significant (F (6, 19) = 24.83, p = .0001). The t values for the variables hostility (t (19) = 2.74, p = .01) and idealization (t (19) = 4.04, p = .0007) were found to be significant when the separate t -tests were performed on the regression coefficients. Thus, hostility and idealization seem to be the most important contributing variables to the identification variable. Together, the six variables account for 89% of the variation in the identification variable.

Idealization

The regression analysis performed with the six variables on the variable idealization resulted in a significant F (6, 19) value of 27.93 with a probability of .0001. Ninety per cent of the variation in the idealization variable was explained by the remaining six variables. Separate t -tests on the estimated coefficients resulted in significant t values on nurturance (t (19) = 2.10, p = .05) and identification (t (19) = 4.04, p = .0007).

Comparison of Adolescents' Perceptions of Their Custodial and Non-custodial Parents

The researchers wanted to know whether or not there were significant differences between the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial parents and the adolescents' perceptions of their non-custodial parents on the seven variables. A t -test was used in testing the null hypothesis at the .05 confidence level. This hypothesis stated that the mean of the differences between the two sets of observations on each variable would equal zero. The alternate hypothesis was that the means of the differences would differ from zero. A t value less than -2.06 or greater than 2.06 with 25 degrees of freedom was required to reject the null hypothesis.

Significant differences were found between the subjects' perceptions of the custodial parent and the subjects' perceptions of the non-custodial parent on four of the variables.

These four variables were: attachment, nurturance, dependability, and idealization. For these variables, the null hypothesis was rejected. We can state that the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents differ on these four variables. The seven variables and the results of the comparisons using the t-test are given in Table 4.

Table 4
Comparison of Adolescents' Perceptions of Their
Custodial and Non-Custodial Parents

Variable	Custodial mean score	Non-custodial mean score	<u>t</u> value	<u>p</u>
Attachment	14.42	11.27	3.24	.0034
Nurturance	16.38	13.92	2.85	.0087
Hostility	14.46	13.92	.54	.5963
Stability	13.54	14.31	1.36	.3654
Dependability	14.54	11.31	3.29	.0030
Identification	12.38	11.04	1.13	.2680
Idealization	14.50	12.27	2.34	.0278


Note: df = 25

Qualitative Analysis of Data and
Presentation of Findings

The open-ended questions were designed to generate qualitative data to answer the research question (Appendix E, Section B). These questions were designed to measure three variables:

- 1) the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents
- 2) the adolescents' perceptions of the quality of their relationship with the custodial and non-custodial parents
- 3) the adolescents' perceptions of how they are viewed by their custodial and non-custodial parents.

Discriminants of the three variables were utilized to generate the data necessary to answer the research question. These discriminants took the form of questions as well as probes seeking more specifics of the questions. The discriminants were derived from the literature review as well as the professional practice knowledge of the researchers. The judges utilized for critiquing the research instrument also provided input with regard to discriminants of the variables. Categories were built from the responses to the main questions as well as for the probes which followed them.



Adolescents' Perceptions of
the Custodial Parent

The researchers requested that each subject give a description of the custodial parent. From the responses of the 26 subjects, two categories emerged from the data. These two categories were: (1) the custodial parent as a parent, and (2) the custodial parent as a person. From the data, sub-categories emerged in each of these areas. A detailed description of the findings is given in Table 5.

The Custodial Parent
as a Parent

Three sub-categories were developed from the data describing the quality of parenting of the custodial parent. These sub-categories were as follows: (a) meeting the emotional needs of the adolescent; (b) meeting the physical needs of the adolescent; and (c) perceived role as disciplinarian.

(a) Meeting the Emotional Needs
of the Adolescent

The majority of the subjects (22) perceived their custodial parent as meeting their emotional needs. Sixteen of the subjects viewed their parents as caring, warm, nurturant, understanding, or as a "good parent." Two adolescents responded with comments such as: "She cares about where all of us are, what we're doing, where we are," and "She understands . . . she has an idea of what it's like to be a teenager." An additional three subjects assigned traits such

Table 5
The Adolescents' Perceptions of Their Custodial Parent

Custodial Parent as a Parent				Custodial Parent as a Person				Physical attributes assigned to parent					
Meeting emotional needs	Meeting physical needs	In role as a disciplinary	Personality traits	Ability to relate to others	In relation to non-custodial parent	Described in terms of appearance							
Meeting emotional needs	22	Meeting physical needs	5	Perceived positively in terms of disciplinary role	12	Assigned positive personality traits	22	Perceived as able to relate to others	8	Perceived in relation to non-custodial parent	1	Described in terms of appearance	4
Not meeting emotional needs	4	No response	21	Perceived negatively in terms of disciplinary role	11	Assigned neutral personality traits	5	No response	18	No response	25	No response	22
						Assigned negative personality traits	4						
						No response	3						
						No response	2						
Total	26		26		26		33*		26		26		26

*Total exceeds 26 as subjects assigned one or more traits to the parent

as generous, giving, and selfless to the parents. Three of the subjects gave specific responses such as the parent liked the child's friends, the parent considered the child's opinion, and the parent was a good listener. Only four of the subjects viewed the parent negatively in terms of meeting their emotional needs. These responses perceived the parent as "grouchy" or "anxious around children."

(b) Meeting the Physical Needs
of the Adolescent

Five of the subjects perceived their custodial parents as meeting their physical needs for they bought the adolescent clothing and/or other necessities. The other 21 subjects gave no response in terms of perceiving their parent as meeting their physical needs.

(c) Perceived Role as Disciplinarian

Those subjects who described their custodial parent in terms of his/her role as a disciplinarian totalled 23. The remaining three subjects gave no response. There were 11 subjects who perceived their custodial parents' role as a disciplinarian in negative terms such as strict, unfair, or overprotective. Excerpts of a few of the adolescents' responses were as follows: "She's overprotective . . . anywhere I go she calls," "She gets mad easy, if I come home late she grounds me," and "She jumps to conclusions a lot . . . [parent] is a little tight with the freedom." Twelve subjects gave a more positive view, attributing such dis-

disciplinary traits as fair, tolerant, reasonable, and not physically abusive, to the custodial parent.

The Custodial Parent as a Person

Those traits not specifically related to the parenting quality of the custodial parent were classified as belonging to the parent as a person. Traits assigned by the subjects to the custodial parent as a person were sub-categorized in the following manner: (a) the perceived personality traits; (b) the ability to relate to others; (c) their relationship with the non-custodial parent; and finally, (d) the physical attributes assigned to the parent. The "sub-category entitled 'personality traits' contained three classifications; positive, negative, or neutral.

(a) Personality Traits Assigned

Subjects who perceived their custodial parent in terms of positive personality traits (i.e., "nice," "good," "good-natured," "fun," or "happy"), totalled 22. Five of the subjects assigned traits which were considered neutral for they were found to be neither positive nor negative in connotation. This included traits such as perfectionist, a homebody, or parent was described as quiet or serious. Only four of the respondents assigned negative personality traits to the custodial parent. In these instances, the custodial parent was viewed as moody, greedy, lazy, or quick to make judgements. Two subjects gave no response in this category.

The total frequency of this sub-category exceeds 26 as subjects assigned one or more traits to the parent.

(b) Their Ability to Relate
to Others

Of the total sample (26), only eight subjects responded. They described their custodial parent as able to relate to others in the parent's environment. Some of the subjects used the following comments: "She's good at helping other people out," and "She gets along with everybody; she likes doing things for other people."

(c) The Relation to the Non-
custodial Parent

One subject described the custodial parent as "non-competitive" for the parent did not compete with the non-custodial parent. Of the 26 subjects, this was the sole adolescent who described the custodial parent in relation to the non-custodial parent.

(d) Physical Attributes Assigned

The four subjects who did respond perceived their custodial parent as looking young for his/her age, or as "pretty."

Desired Changes in the Custodial Parent

This question was designed to provide the researchers with additional perceptions of the custodial parent by the adolescents. From the data generated, four categories emerged. These categories were as follows: (1) desired

changes in the custodial parent as a parent; (2) desired changes in the custodial parent as a person; (3) desired changes in the custodial parent's social functioning, and (4) no changes desired in the custodial parent. Several of these categories contained sub-categories. A description of these findings may be found in Table 6.

Desired Changes in the Custodial Parent as a Parent

The change most desired of the custodial parent by the subjects was in relation to the parents' role as a disciplinarian. A total of 17 subjects wished their parents were less strict, less overprotective, and less anxious about them. Subjects also wished that their custodial parents demonstrated less favouritism towards their siblings. Other desired changes were that less yelling, complaining, short-temperedness, or hostility be exhibited by the custodial parent. This response was typical of subjects who were included in this sub-category: "[custodial parent] not to get upset at every little thing that happens, not to be so concerned . . . she's overprotective." Of these 17 subjects, two adolescents wished that their parents were more restrictive in terms of discipline.

The subjects also desired change in the quality of parenting in terms of the parent meeting their emotional needs. A few of the adolescents' responses were as follows: "I would want her to stay at home more often, to be at home . . . spending more time with us, her children," "I'd like

Table 6

Desired Changes in the Custodial Parent

As a parent	As a person	In social functioning	No changes desired in custodial parent
In role as disciplinarian	17 Desired changes in the negative personality traits of parent	8 Desired change: parent to improve social life	2 Desired no changes in custodial parent
In meeting emotional needs	8 Change parent in relation to non-custodial parent	2 Desired parent to find a new partner/remarry	23 No response
In meeting physical needs	2 Desired changes in physical attributes	4 No response	22
	No response	13	
Total	32*	27*	26

*Total exceeds 26 as subjects desired one or more changes in the parent

her to stay home as much as she can," or "that she would understand me more." The number of subjects who responded with similar feelings totalled eight. Changes in the custodial parent included that the parent either spend more time with the subject or be more understanding and helpful to the subject.

Those subjects who felt that changes were needed in the parents' provision of their physical needs numbered two. These adolescents wished that the custodial parent have more money (for the family) or that the parent be out working.

Five subjects gave no response in terms of wanting changes in the custodial parents' provision of the emotional, disciplinary, or physical needs of the subjects.

Desired Changes in the Custodial Parent as a Person

Changes in the custodial parent as a person was mentioned by eight of the subjects; i.e., less moody, vulnerable, stubborn, lazy or more responsible, generous, and happier. One subject stated he/she would like the custodial parent's total personality altered, while another wanted the parent to quit drinking.

Another sub-category contained two subjects who wanted changes in the custodial parents' relationship with the non custodial parent. One subject wanted the relationship between the parents to improve, while the other wished that their parents would reunite.

Four subjects responded in relation to changing the custodial parents' physical attributes. Three of these subjects wished that the parent were younger, while the other wanted the parent to be "skinnier."

Desired Changes in the Custodial Parents' Social Functioning

This category was responded to by four subjects who desired changes in the social life of the custodial parent, and more specifically, the desire for the parent to find a new partner. Two of the subjects wished the custodial parent would go out more socially, and have more friends. Another two subjects wanted the custodial parent to find a new partner or wished that the parent would remarry.

No Changes Desired in the Custodial Parent

Of the 26 subjects, only three stated that they would not alter their custodial parent in any way, if given the power to do so.

The Adolescent's Perception of the Quality of His/Her Relationship with the Custodial Parent

The researchers thought that the quality of the relationship with the custodial parent would affect the adolescent's perception of the custodial parent. Five categories were developed from the data generated for this variable. The responses yielded general perceptions of the quality of the relationship in two categories: (1) the adolescent's

perception of how he/she gets along with the custodial parent, and (2) the adolescent's perception of being understood by the custodial parent. Perceptions of the quality of the relationship with the custodial parent were obtained in more specific terms in these categories: (1) perception of the time spent; (2) activities shared, and (3) verbal interaction. The detailed findings are reported in Table 7.

How He/She Gets Along with the Custodial Parent

The majority of the subjects (14) responded that they did get along with their custodial parent. As an example, one subject indicated, "We get along pretty good. The only time we get in fights is when she tries to get me to do the housework - which I never do." Eight of the subjects responded that sometimes they did get along while at other times they did not get along with the custodial parent. A typical responses was, "Sometimes we get along. No yelling or nothing. I have a good time with her. Sometimes we don't. There's arguing and sometimes fighting, but that's very rare." Only one subject stated that she did not get along with the custodial parent.

How He/She is Understood by the Custodial Parent

Eleven of the subjects indicated that they felt understood by the custodial parent, e.g., "Yeah, I feel she understands me. She always tells me she was once a kid and she went through the same problems once that I'm going

The Adolescent's Perception of the Quality of His/Her

Relationship with the Custodial Parent					
How he/she gets along with the custodial parent	How he/she is understood by the custodial parent	Time spent with the custodial parent	Activities shared with the custodial parent	Verbal interaction with custodial parent	Focus of interaction
Get along very good(3) -good(7) -alright(4)	14 Understood	11 Spend a lot of time	6 Activities shared -go places(7) -sports and activities(5) -work together(3) -watch t.v.(3) -eat(1)	13 Talk only(11) -talk positive(4) -talk negative(2)	15 Child focus
Sometimes get along/sometimes don't get along	8 Sometimes understood/sometimes not understood	4 Spend time	3	Don't talk much	2 Parent focus
Don't get along	1 Not understood	5 Don't spend a lot of time	2	Don't really talk	5 Parent and adolescent focus
No response	3 Not sure	1 Don't spend time	13 No response	Sometimes try to talk but doesn't work out	General
	No response	5 No response	14	Never talk/ nothing to say	
				No response	

*Total exceeds 26 as subjects responded in more than one classification

through." Five subjects did not feel the custodial parent understood them. One subject responded, "I don't feel that my mother - well we're not that close. I don't feel she understands me. Half the things I think I do right, she thinks I do wrong." Four of the subjects responded that sometimes the custodial parent understood them. For example, "I feel she understands me in some things" or "About half-way [understands me]," were two of the responses. One subject was unsure of whether or not the custodial parent understood him/her. Five of the subjects gave no response within this category.

Time Spent with the Custodial Parent

Eleven of the subjects responded that they spent time with the custodial parent, e.g., "We spend most of our time together." Two of the subjects indicated that they did not spend a lot of time with the custodial parent. Slightly over one-half (14) of the subjects did not respond in terms of time spent.

Activities Shared with the Custodial Parent

Activities shared by the custodial parent and the adolescent were first classified in terms of whether or not shared activities were mentioned by the adolescent. One-half of the sample did not respond in terms of shared activities. Some subjects responded in terms of more than one type of activity. The most frequent response was that

the custodial parent and adolescent went places such as shopping or movies together. Five of the subjects reported sharing sports and other activities together, e.g., playing cards or roller skating. Three indicated that they worked with the custodial parent at such things as gardening or housework. Three stated that they shared watching television.

Verbal Interaction with the Custodial Parent

Verbal interaction between the adolescent and the custodial parent was classified in the context of: (a) amount and quality of the interaction, and (b) topics around which subjects interacted with the custodial parent.

(a) Amount and Quality of Interaction

Eleven of the subjects indicated only that they talked with the custodial parent. Eight of the sample expressed their responses negatively with regard to the amount and quality of the verbal interaction. These responses ranged from the adolescent saying they never talked to the parent to the adolescent saying that they talked to the parent but the parent did not listen. Positive responses regarding verbal interaction were less frequent than negative responses. Four of the subjects indicated positive verbal interaction. As an example, one subject responded that the parent listened when they talked. Three of the adolescents did not mention verbal interaction in their responses.

(b) Focus of Interaction

The topics around which the subjects interacted with the custodial parent were divided into four classes. Some of the subjects responded in more than one class. The focus of verbal interaction was used as a basis for classifying these responses. The majority (15) of the subjects indicated that verbal interaction with the custodial parent focused on the adolescent him/herself. Some of the topics of conversation were school, personal problems and what the adolescent had done during the day. Five of the subjects responded that they talked about general things, such as the news, with the custodial parent. Five of the subjects reported that their conversations focused on areas mutual to parent and adolescent. Within this classification, adolescent and parent talked about such things as the father of the adolescent or activities they had shared. Two of the subjects indicated verbal interaction focused on the parent. In both instances, the custodial parent's work was the focus of the verbal interaction.

The Adolescents' Perceptions of
their Relationship with the
Custodial Parent

Additional perceptions of the adolescent's relationship with the custodial parent were obtained in five categories. These five categories were: (1) perceptions of how they get along with the custodial parent; (2) perceptions of the relationship as an understanding one; (3) the amount

of time spent with the custodial parent; (4) the activities shared with the custodial parent; and (5) the amount and quality of verbal interaction with the custodial parent. Data generated included the subject's description of the custodial parent, in addition to his/her description of the relationship with that parent. The description of the parent was included in a sixth category, although this data was not directly related to the measurement of the variable. A description of the findings have been given in Table 8.

How He/She Gets Along with the Custodial Parent

The majority (14) of the subjects felt they did get along with the custodial parent.. Five of these 14 subjects felt they got along very well. Seven subjects qualified their responses by stating that sometimes they got along with the parent while at other times they did not. Most of these subjects reported that their getting along with the parent was dependent upon the mood of the parent, i.e., "When she's nice [in a good mood], I'd get along. When we watch T.V. together or bake or go shopping we get along . . . [when in a bad mood] she's hitting me, or I slam the door, or throw things. We would be arguing." The remaining five subjects reported that they did not get along that well, or at all, with the parent.

Table 8
The Adolescents' Perceptions of Their Relationship
with the Custodial Parent

How he/she gets along with the custodial parent	How he/she is understood by the custodial parent	Time spent with the custodial parent	Activities shared with the custodial parent	Verbal interaction with custodial parent Amount and quality of interaction	Focus of interaction	Description of the custodial parent
Get along -very well(5) -good/fine(9)	14 Perceived relationship with custodial parent as understanding	3 Spend a lot of time together	5 These who shared activities	4 A lot of verbal interaction	7 Talked of things in general	6 Parent as a disciplinarian -positively viewed(5) -negatively viewed(1)
Get along sometimes/ don't get along	7 No response	21 Don't spend a lot of time together	4 Don't share activities together	7 Verbal interaction occurs	3 Parent and adolescent focus	1 Parent in terms of emotional needs being met -negative-emotional needs not being met
Don't get along -not that well(3) -not at all(2)	5 No response	17 No response	8 No response	6 Absence of verbal interaction/poor verbal interaction	11 Adolescent focus	2 Parent as a person trait(1) -assigned positive relationship with other parent(1)
Total	26	26	26	26	26	17 No response

*Focus of interaction based on 11 subjects who reported interaction

How He/She is Understood by
the Custodial Parent

Three of the 26 subjects perceived their relationship with the custodial parent as an understanding one. The remaining 23 subjects made no mention of the relationship in terms of it being an understanding one.

Time Spent with the
Custodial Parent

Those subjects who stated they spent "a lot of time" with their custodial parent totalled five. Reports included statements such as, "We're together most of the time" and "We always talk together." Subjects who specified that they did not spend much time with their parent numbered four. A total of 17 subjects made no mention of the amount of time spent with the custodial parent.

Activities Shared with
the Custodial Parent

Fourteen subjects reported that they shared activities (beyond verbal interaction) with their parent. The types of activities most frequently shared were watching T.V., shopping, and helping one another with the household chores. Those subjects reporting that they did not share activities with the custodial parent numbered four. Eight subjects made no mention of sharing activities with the parent.

Verbal Interaction with
the Custodial Parent

This category contained two sub-categories which described (a) the amount and quality of verbal interaction, and (b) the focus of the verbal interaction.

(a) Amount and Quality of
Verbal Interaction

Eleven subjects reported that verbal interaction occurred between themselves and the custodial parent. Four of the eleven subjects reported frequent verbal interaction, while the other seven reported simply that verbal interaction did occur with the parent.

Six subjects reported that the verbal interaction was infrequent or that it was negative, for it consisted "solely of arguments." Several of these responses were as follows: "We don't get along, get into a lot of arguments"; "Not much talking, don't do much together"; and "Don't talk a lot, you go about your business and he goes about his; don't share too much together." Nine of the subjects made no mention of verbal interaction with their custodial parent.

(b) Focus of the Verbal Interaction

This sub-category contained the focus of the verbal interaction reported by the eleven adolescents. Seven of these subjects stated they talked of things in general. Another three subjects reported they discussed both the

parents' and the subjects' interests, while one subject reported verbal interaction focused on him/herself.

Description of the Custodial Parent

Nine subjects gave descriptive data regarding the custodial parent, in addition to their view of the relationship with the parent. Six subjects described the parent in terms of his/her role as a disciplinarian. The frequencies within this classification included three subjects who responded negatively in terms of the parents' disciplinary role, while the other three responded positively. Those parents who were viewed negatively were perceived as overprotective and physically or verbally abusive. Subjects who viewed their parents positively in terms of their role as a disciplinarian described the parent as not restrictive or as not physically abusive.

One subject described the parent in terms of her emotional needs not being met. This subject felt the parent had high expectations in relation to the teen's responsibilities within the household.

Two subjects described the parent in terms of traits not related to the parenting quality of the custodial parent. One subject stated the parent was a generous person. The other subject described the custodial parent as having a good relationship with the non-custodial parent.

The Adolescent's Perception of
How He/She is Viewed by the
Custodial Parent

Four categories were developed from the data generated in relation to this variable. Adolescents' perceptions were obtained with regard to: (1) the quality of traits perceived to be assigned by the custodial parent; (2) the context in which traits were perceived to be assigned by the custodial parent; (3) the quality of behaviour associated with the traits perceived to be assigned by the custodial parent; and (4) the context of behaviours associated with traits perceived to be assigned by the custodial parent. The findings are reported in Table 9.

Quality of Traits

There were five subjects who reported the parents' view of them only in terms of positive traits. Such traits as "well-mannered," "outgoing," and "kind" are a few examples mentioned by the subjects. There were four subjects who stated their parents' view of them only in terms of negative traits. Some of those traits mentioned by the subjects were "mouthy," "grumpy," and "lazy." The majority of the subjects (14) perceived that their parents viewed them sometimes positively and sometimes negatively. These subjects responded with both positive and negative traits. One subject stated that the parent viewed them as "stubborn" but also as "determined." There were three subjects who responded with neutral traits such as "alright." These

The Adolescent's Perception of How He/She is Viewed by the Custodial Parent

123.

*Classes are not mutually exclusive, therefore total does not equal 26

responses were mixed with one subject giving positive and neutral traits, one giving negative and neutral traits, and one giving positive, negative and neutral traits.

Context of Traits

These responses were categorized in terms of the context in which traits were perceived to be assigned to the adolescent by the custodial parent. Responses were further sub-categorized into positive, negative and neutral categories.

(a) Context of Positive Traits

Four of the subjects responded with positive traits perceived to be assigned as a result of their performance of tasks in the home. For example, one subject stated he was a "hard worker." There were three subjects whose positive traits were perceived to be assigned in regard to their role as a student, e.g., "smart in school." Eight of the subjects responded with positive traits regarding themselves as persons. Seven of these subjects responded with positive personality traits such as "fair" and "honest." One subject responded with a positive physical trait. There were seven subjects who perceived positive traits assigned to them by the custodial parent within a social context outside of the home. Such traits as "responsible," "trustworthy," and "good" were contained in this classification.

(b) Context of Negative Traits

There were three subjects who perceived negative traits assigned to them by the custodial parent on the basis of performance of household tasks. An example of a trait reported is "sloppy" (in regard to the subject leaving his/her room untidy). There were two subjects who responded with negative traits in relation to siblings. One example of these traits is "mean" (in relation to bullying brothers and sisters). Another subject reported a trait perceived to be assigned to him/her by the custodial parent as a result of his/her attitude toward the custodial parent. This trait was "nagging." One subject reported "spoiled" as a trait they perceived was assigned to them by the custodial parent in relation to the subject being spoiled by the non-custodial parent. Three subjects responded with negative traits perceived to be assigned to them in relation to their performance at school. One subject indicated that the custodial parent felt he/her did not "try" when the subject brought home "bad marks." There were three subjects who responded with negative traits as a person perceived to be assigned to them by the custodial parent. Some of the traits were "irresponsible" and "bad." Six of the subjects perceived that the custodial parent assigned negative traits to them in relation to the social context. Some of these traits were "troublemaker," "stupid" (in relation to "smoking pot"), "brat" and "pain in the neck."

(c) Context of Neutral Traits

The traits which were neutral included those three subjects who responded that the custodial parent viewed them as "alright." These traits were classified as descriptive of the adolescent in relation to his/her personality.

Quality of Behaviour

Responses were classified in terms of whether or not the subject indicated behaviour associated with traits perceived to be assigned to them by the custodial parent. These responses were further classified in relation to whether or not the behaviours were positive or negative.

Of the 26 subjects, nine indicated positive behaviour associated with the traits they perceived assigned to them. Eight subjects responded with negative behaviours associated with the traits. There were eight subjects who reported both positive and negative behaviours associated with traits perceived to be assigned to them. One subject did not indicate any behaviour associated with the traits reported.

Context of Behaviour

The positive and negative behaviours associated with traits were then categorized in relation to the context in which they occurred. This category was sub-categorized in the following way: (a) the context of positive behaviour, and (b) the context of negative behaviour.

(a) Context of Positive Behaviour

Two subjects responded with positive behaviour in relation to traits they perceived assigned by the parent with regard to school. An example of this would be the adolescent who indicated that they got "good grades.". Thirteen subjects indicated positive behaviours outside of the home, e.g., "stay out of trouble" and "never steal.". There were six adolescents who indicated positive behaviours in relation to tasks at home. One subject responded that he/she did their work "when I'm supposed to." There was one subject who indicated positive behaviour in relation to his/her siblings. One subject responded with a positive behaviour with regard to getting along with the custodial parent.

(b) Context of Negative Behaviour

Two subjects indicated negative school behaviours associated with traits perceived to be assigned by the custodial parent. As an example, one subject stated he/she did not do his/her homework. Six of the subjects reported negative behaviours outside of the home. As an example, one subject reported that he/she was thought to be a "troublemaker" by the custodial parent because he/she would get into fights with peers. Three of the subjects indicated negative behaviours regarding tasks at home such as disliking doing dishes. There were three subjects who reported negative behaviours related to getting along with

siblings such as fighting with a brother or arguing with a sister. Six subjects indicated negative behaviour in getting along with the custodial parent. Such behaviours included issues such as having a bad attitude, not listening to the custodial parent, and bothering the custodial parent.

Adolescents' Perceptions of
their Non-Custodial Parent

Each subject was asked by the researchers to describe his/her non-custodial parent. Two categories were developed from the data generated. These categories were: (1) the non-custodial parent as a parent, and (2) the non-custodial parent as a person. Sub-categories emerged from the data within each of these categories. The detailed findings have been given in Table 10.

The Non-Custodial Parent
as a Parent

Three sub-categories emerged from the data related to the quality of parenting of the non-custodial parent. These sub-categories included: (a) meeting the emotional needs of the adolescents; (2) meeting the physical needs of the adolescents; and (3) in relation to their role as a disciplinarian.

(a) Meeting the Emotional Needs
of the Adolescent

Seven subjects perceived the non-custodial parent as possessing parental traits that met the adolescents' emo-

Table 10
The Adolescents' Perceptions of Their

Non-Custodial Parent				Non-custodial parent as a person			
Non-custodial parent as a parent		Non-custodial parent as a person		Non-custodial parent as a person		Non-custodial parent as a person	
Meeting emotional needs	Meeting physical needs	In role as a disciplinarian	Personality traits	Ability to relate to others	In relation to non-custodial parent	Physical attributes assigned	
As meeting emotional needs	7 As meeting physical needs	3 Perceived positively in role as disciplinarian	Assigned positive personality traits	18 Perceived in relation to ability to relate to others	2 Perceived in relation to the custodial parent (poor)	4 Described in terms of appearance	
As not meeting emotional needs	7 No response	23 Perceived negatively in role as disciplinarian	Assigned negative personality traits	11 No response	24 No response	No response	22
No response	12	No response 14	Assigned neutral traits	5			
			No response 4				
Total	26	26	38*	26	26	26	26

*Total exceeds 26 as subjects assigned one or more traits to the parent

tional needs. These traits included views of the parent as warm, caring, understanding, and tender. In addition, the parent was described in a positive light when the non-custodial parent talked to the child or took the child out places. Another seven subjects viewed their non-custodial parent as not meeting their emotional needs. Three of these subjects made direct reference to the unreliable and undependable nature of the non-custodial parent. One adolescent made the following statement: "When I go to visit him [father], he's usually got an excuse, he'll tell me to come and then he's never there." Another teen made this observation: "He's got an excuse for anything, the only time he ever calls is when he doesn't have a girlfriend." Traits such as uncaring, lacking of affection, cool, and suspicious were additional indicators of negative views assigned to the non-custodial parent. No response was given by 12 of the subjects in relation to this subcategory.

(b) Meeting the Physical Needs
of the Adolescent

A description of the parent, in terms of the provision of physical needs for the adolescent, was limited to three subjects. Two of these three subjects stated they were spoiled by the non-custodial parent in relation to the material goods acquired for them. The other subject felt the non-custodial parent met his/her physical needs by maintaining an orderly household. Twenty-three subjects gave no response.

(c) In Relation to their
Role as Disciplinarian

A total of 12 subjects gave views of their parent as a disciplinarian. Of these subjects, nine gave descriptions which would indicate that the adolescents perceived the parent negatively in terms of discipline. Terms such as "quick tempered," "hostile," "strict," "yells a lot," or "doesn't provide any discipline" were included in the subjects' descriptions. One subject stated his/her non-custodial parent was: "Very short-tempered . . . he doesn't like being bothered by things . . . what he says goes or else you go, not a good father," The three subjects who viewed their non-custodial parent in a more positive light stated the parents were not abusive and never yelled. Fourteen subjects did not describe their non-custodial parents in terms of their role as a disciplinarian.

The Non-Custodial Parent
as a Person

The second category consisted of those traits identified as belonging to the non-custodial parent as a person, opposed to those specific to parenting. The sub-categories contained within this category were: (a) the perceived personality traits; (b) the ability to relate to others; (c) their relationship with the custodial parent; and (d) the physical attributes of the non-custodial parent. The personality traits of the parent were classified as either positive, negative or neutral.

(a) Personality Traits Assigned

Eighteen of the 26 subjects perceived the non-custodial parent in terms of positive personality traits. The majority of the subjects described the non-custodial parent as "nice," "kind," "friendly," "fun," "easy-going," "gentle," or "sensitive." Those subjects whose responses were negative totalled 11. Examples of some of these traits were that the parent was "cheap," "greedy," "self-centered," or "starts things, and never finishes them." Only five subjects gave neutral descriptions such as the parent was "quiet," "shy," "perfectionist," or "talkative." No response was given by four of the subjects in relation to this sub-category. The total of the frequencies for this sub-category exceeded 26 as the subjects assigned one or more traits to the non-custodial parent.

(b) Their Ability to Relate
to Others

In relation to the non-custodial parent's ability to relate to others, only two subjects responded and they gave opposite views. One subject viewed the parent as non-communicative with other people (i.e., "doesn't communicate with other people, just sits on his own") while the other saw the parent as helpful to others.

(c) The Non-Custodial Parent as a
Person: Relationship with the
Custodial Parent

Two of the 26 subjects described their non-custodial parent as having a poor relationship with their custodial parent. The following comments were given by these subjects: "He doesn't get along with my mom [custodial], they argue a lot," and "She's always saying something about my dad [custodial] and his relatives . . . she's jealous of me seeing them."

(d) The Non-Custodial Parent as a
Person: Physical Attributes
Assigned

A physical description of the non-custodial parent was given by only four of the total sample of adolescents. Three subjects assigned positive traits such as "looks young," or is "tall, dark and handsome" in relation to the physical attributes. The other subject described the non-custodial parent as a "bum" in terms of appearance.

Desired Changes in the
Non-Custodial Parent

To provide additional perceptions of the non-custodial parent, adolescents were asked what changes they would desire in their non-custodial parent. Four categories were developed from the data generated by this question. These categories were: (1) desired changes in the non-custodial parent as a parent; (2) desired changes in the non-custodial parent as a person; (3) desired changes in the non-custodial

parent's social functioning; and (4) no changes desired in the non-custodial parent. Sub-categories were developed from the data within these categories. Details of these findings have been given in Table 11.

Desired Changes in the Non-Custodial Parent as a Parent

Those subjects wishing to alter their non-custodial parent's role as disciplinarian totalled eight. The responses of these subjects included such comments as wishing the parent were: less strict and overprotective, less short-tempered, exhibited less favouritism towards their siblings, and less prone to making quick judgements. One adolescent responded in this manner: "He's [non-custodial] too protective, too; he won't let me stay out late and he watches who I hang around with . . . he thinks we're always out partying or doing something." This subject also wished the non-custodial parent would "not check up on us all the time," as a result of perceiving the parent as overprotective.

The majority (17) of subjects desired changes in the non-custodial parent in terms of the parent meeting their emotional needs. The responses of these 17 subjects indicated that they perceived the non-custodial parent as not fulfilling their emotional needs, i.e., "that I could spend more time with him, I don't feel I spend enough time with him. We could be closer 'cause I can only see him once a week"; "I wish he'd stay around, not jump off to different

Table 11
Desired Changes in the Non-Custodial Parent

As a parent	As a person	In social functioning	No changes desired in non-custodial parent
In role as disciplinarian	8 Desired changes in the negative personality traits of parent	12 Desired change: Parent to improve social interaction,	5 Desiring no changes in non-custodial parent
In meeting emotional needs	17 Change parent in relation to custodial parent	2 No response	21 No response
In meeting physical needs	4 Desired changes in physical attributes	2	25
No response	3 No response	11	
Total	32*	27*	26

Totals exceed 26 as subjects responded in more than one class

places"; "If he was more responsible"; and "I want him to spend more time with me than with his girlfriend." Many of these subjects responded in terms of the non-custodial parent's irresponsibility and/or in terms of the amount or quality of time spent with them.

In relation to the non-custodial parent's ability to meet the physical needs of the adolescents, four subjects desired changes of the parent. Two of these subjects wanted their parents to spoil them less, in terms of material goods they did not need. The other two subjects wished the parent made more money in order to provide them with physical necessities.

Three subjects gave no response in relation to altering the manner in which their physical, emotional, or disciplinary needs were being met. The total of the frequencies within this category exceeds 26 as the subjects stated they wished one or more changes in the non-custodial parent.

Desired Changes in the Non-Custodial Parent as a Person

Twelve subjects responded that they wished to alter certain traits of the non-custodial parent as a person. Several wished their parent possessed a better personality, in general, while other subjects gave more specific responses. Examples of aspects of the non-custodial parent (as a person) that subjects would change were: less greedy, less conceited, less suspicious of everything, to be a nicer person, to stop drinking, or that the parent be a happier person.

Another two subjects desired changes in the non-custodial parent in relation to their custodial parent. One subject would like to see the non-custodial parent as a more understanding person in terms of his/her custodial parent, and thus they may reunite. The remaining subject stated that he/she would like to see the non-custodial parent be less demeaning of the custodial parent.

Changes in the physical attributes of the non-custodial parent were desired by only two of the 26 subjects. One subject desired a change in hair colour for the non-custodial parent, while the other wished the parent were younger.

Eleven subjects did not respond within this category. However, the total frequency exceeded 26 since some subjects gave several changes they would like to make in the non-custodial parent.

Desired Changes in the Non-Custodial Parent's Social Functioning

Five subjects wished to change certain aspects of the non-custodial parent's interaction with others. Alterations that were desired by these subjects included the following: that the non-custodial parent be less critical of others; that they be more friendly to others; or be less vulnerable to common-law partners. The remaining 21 subjects did not respond within this category.

No Changes Desired of the
Non-Custodial Parent

Of the 26 subjects, only one subject stated that he/she desired no changes of the non-custodial parent.

The Adolescent's Perception of the
Quality of His/Her Relationship
with the Non-Custodial Parent

The responses in relation to this variable generated data in five categories. General perceptions of the quality of the relationship were divided into two categories. These categories were: (1) the adolescent's perception of how he/she gets along with the non-custodial parent, and (2) the adolescent's perception of being understood by the non-custodial parent. Perceptions were obtained in more specific terms in these three categories: (a) perception of the time spent with the non-custodial parent; (b) activities shared with the non-custodial parent; and (c) verbal interaction with the non-custodial parent. Table 12 reports the major findings in regard to this variable.

How He/She Gets Along with
the Non-Custodial Parent

Fifteen of the subjects perceived that they got along with the non-custodial parent. A typical response was, "Yeah, I get along with him. I usually tell him if I've got a problem." Of the total sample, seven responded that they did not get along very well with the non-custodial

Table 12
The Adolescent's Perception of the quality of His/Her
Relationship with the Non-Custodial Parent

Relationship with the non-custodial parent						
How he/she gets along with the non-custodial parent	How he/she is understood by the non-custodial parent	Time spent with the non-custodial parent	Activities shared with parent	Verbal interaction with the non-custodial parent	Focus of interaction	
Get along -very good (2) -good (8) -alright (5)	Understood 15 Sometimes understood/sometimes not understood 3	1 Spend a lot of time 5 Don't spend a lot of time	1 Activities shared -go places (4) -sports and activities (5) -watch t.v. (1) -go on trips (2)	6 5 20	12 2 1 1 3 7	9 2 5 3
Sometimes get along/sometimes don't get along	Not understood 5 Not sure 1	No response 20	No response	20	1 1 1 3	Child focus Parent focus Parent and adolescent focus General
Don't get along at all	No response 10				1	
No response 1					3	
Total	26	26	26	26	26	19*

*Classes are not mutually exclusive, therefore total does not equal 26

parent. One subject responded: "Not very well. He and my brother are closer. We were closer at one time but now that I'm older we have nothing really." There were two subjects who responded that they did not get along at all with the non-custodial parent. One of these subjects said, "We're almost like enemies. We can't stand each other." One subject responded that sometimes they got along with the non-custodial parent and sometimes they did not. There was one subject who did not respond within this category.

How He/She is Understood by the Non-Custodial Parent

There were 10 subjects who did not respond in terms of being understood by the non-custodial parent. Of the 16 who did respond, seven indicated that the non-custodial parent understood them, e.g., "He understands me because he says he had the same problems when he was my age and he tells me about that." Three of the subjects responded that sometimes they were understood and sometimes they were not understood by the non-custodial parent. A response was, "He understands me most of the time. Sometimes he doesn't. If I try to tell him something about what I've been doing he doesn't understand what I mean." One subject was not sure if he/she was understood by the non-custodial parent.

Time Spent with the Non- Custodial Parent

There were 20 adolescents who did not respond in relation to the time spent with the non-custodial parent.

Of the remaining six subjects, five responded that they did not spend a lot of time with the non-custodial parent. One of these subjects stated he/she did not spend a lot of time with the non-custodial parent and added, "I wish I could spend more time with him if he wasn't working, but I guess I can't." One subject responded that he/she spent a lot of time with the non-custodial parent.

Activities Shared with the Non-Custodial Parent

The responses within this category were classified in two ways: (a) whether or not shared activities were mentioned by the subjects, and (b) the activities shared by the non-custodial parent and the adolescent. There were 20 of the subjects who did not respond within this category. Six subjects responded that they shared activities with the non-custodial parent. Responses to the types of activities shared were divided in four classes. Adolescents sometimes responded in more than one class. Five of the subjects responded that they shared sports and activities such as golf with the non-custodial parent. There were four subjects who indicated that they went places such as the movies or shopping with the non-custodial parent. Two indicated that they went on trips out-of-town with the non-custodial parent. One subject reported watching television with the non-custodial parent as a shared activity.

Verbal Interaction with the Non-Custodial Parent

Responses within this category were further sub-categorized into two areas: (a) the amount and quality of the verbal interaction, and (b) the topics around which subjects interacted with the non-custodial parent.

(a) Amount and Quality of Interaction

Eight of the subjects responded that they talked to the custodial parent. Another four qualified their responses in terms of negative or positive verbal interaction. Two of these responses were positive and two were negative. One subject who qualified his/her responses to the verbal interaction negatively stated: "He talks about my mom a lot and my stepfather. In a way I don't really like it. It all depends on what he does say. So I usually say 'I gotta go now' and leave." Two subjects indicated that they did not talk very much with the non-custodial parent, e.g., "We don't talk very much 'cause I don't see him that much. He's always working." There were three subjects who responded that they never talk with the non-custodial parent. One response was: "We've never had a personal conversation. Like I'd like him to just call on my birthday. It's like meeting a new person." One subject indicated that he/she tried to talk to the non-custodial parent but that this did not work. Another subject responded that he/she talked with the non-custodial parent sometimes. There were seven

subjects who did not respond in relation to the amount and quality of the verbal interaction.

(b) Focus of Interaction

The topics around which the subjects interacted with the non-custodial parent were classified in terms of the focus of the verbal interaction. Some subjects responded in more than one class. Nine of the subjects responded that the verbal interaction was focused on their concerns such as problems they were having at school or their relationships with friends. Five of the subjects indicated that verbal interaction focused on both the adolescent and the parent. As an example, one adolescent indicated that he/she talked about his/her relatives with the non-custodial parent. Three of the subjects responded that they talked about such general things as the news or about "everything." Two of the subjects indicated that they talked about things that focused on the non-custodial parent.

The Adolescents' Perceptions of
their Relationship with the
Non-Custodial Parent

Responses generated from this question yielded additional perceptions of the adolescent's relationship with the non-custodial parent in these five categories: (1) the adolescents' perceptions of how they got along with the non-custodial parent; (2) the adolescents' perceptions of the relationship as understanding; (3) the

adolescents' perceptions of the time spent with the non-custodial parent; (4) activities shared by the adolescents and their non-custodial parents; and (5) verbal interaction between the adolescents and the non-custodial parent. Descriptions of the non-custodial parent were given by some of the subjects. These are included and constitute a sixth category. The findings are reported in Table 13.

How He/She Gets Along with
the Non-Custodial Parent

There were 13 subjects who responded that they got along with the non-custodial parent.. Of these, seven stated they got along good; five indicated they got along alright and one subject said he/she got along very good with the non-custodial parent. One subject stated, "We get along fairly good. He treats us good, takes us to the show and that." Five subjects responded that they did not get along with the non-custodial parent. In response to the question, one subject stated, "We don't [get along]. That's simple." There were eight subjects who did not respond within this category.

How He/She is Understood by
the Non-Custodial Parent

There were 24 subjects who did not respond within this category. The two subjects who did respond indicated that they perceived the relationship with the non-custodial parent as understanding.

Table 13
The Adolescents' Perceptions of Their Relationship
with the Non-Custodial Parent

How he/she gets along with the non-custodial parent	How he/she is understood by the non-custodial parent	Time spent with the non-custodial parent	Activities shared with the non-custodial parent	Verbal interaction with non-custodial parent: Amount and quality of interaction	Focus of interaction	Description of the non-custodial parent
Get along -very good(1) -good(7) -alright(5)	Perceived relationship with the non-custodial parent as understanding	Don't spend a lot of time together	Those who shared activities	A lot of verbal interaction	Talked of things in general	Parent as a disciplinarian -positively viewed(1) -negatively viewed(1)
Don't get along	No response	Spend time together	No response	Verbal interaction occurs	Parent and adolescent focus	Parent in terms of emotional needs being met
No response	No response	No response	No response	Absence of verbal interaction poor verbal interaction	Adolescent focus	-negative(3) -emotional needs not being met
				No response	No response	Parent as a person -assigned(1) positive personality trait
						No response
Total	26	26	26	26	26	26

*focus of interaction based on 8 adolescents who reported interaction

Time Spent with the Non-Custodial Parent

There were four subjects who responded within this category. Three subjects indicated that they did not spend a lot of time with the non-custodial parent. One subject responded, "He's working and he plays hockey and baseball and all kinds of stuff. If you can find him but he's usually gone out when we call him so we just see him when he's got his vacation." One subject responded that he/she spent time with the non-custodial parent. Twenty-two subjects did not respond in terms of time spent with the non-custodial parent.

Activities Shared with the Non-Custodial Parent

There were 14 subjects who indicated that they shared activities with the non-custodial parent. Some of these included going places such as the show, or to visit relatives. Others indicated sharing in playing sports and games or watching television. Twelve subjects did not respond in relation to the activities shared with the non-custodial parent.

Verbal Interaction with the Non-Custodial Parent

Two sub-categories were contained within the category of the adolescent's perception of verbal interaction with the non-custodial parent. These sub-categories were: (a) the amount and quality of verbal interaction with the

non-custodial parent, and (b) the focus of verbal interaction with the non-custodial parent.

(a) Amount and Quality of
Verbal Interaction

There were eight subjects who responded that there was verbal interaction with the non-custodial parent. Of these, seven indicated that verbal interaction occurred and one responded that there was a lot of verbal interaction. One subject responded, "We get along alright. We talk a lot . . . just what we do during the week." There were nine adolescents who indicated that there was either no verbal interaction or that the interaction with the non-custodial parent was poor. As an example, one subject responded, "We never talk. When I'm out there I hardly ever talk to him. If you say two words you're lucky. You'd learn we don't get along." There were nine subjects who did not respond within this category.

(b) Focus of Verbal Interaction

There were four subjects who indicated that verbal interaction with the non-custodial parent focused on general things. Three subjects indicated that they talked about things that were of interest to both parent and adolescent. One subject responded that he/she spoke of things which concerned him/her. Eighteen adolescents did not respond within this category.

Description of the Non-Custodial Parent

There were six subjects who responded within this category. Two subjects described the parent as a disciplinarian. One of these described the parent in positive terms; the other in negative terms. Three subjects indicated that the parent did not meet their emotional needs. For instance, one subject stated, "He does what he wants and I do what I want. I don't care if it hurts him and he doesn't care if it hurts me." One subject assigned a positive personality trait to the non-custodial parent as a person.

The Adolescent's Perception of How He/She is Viewed by the Non- Custodial Parent

Four major categories were utilized in analysis of the responses in relation to this variable. The adolescents' perceptions were obtained in these four categories: (1) the quality of traits perceived to be assigned by the non-custodial parent; (2) the context in which traits were perceived to be assigned by the non-custodial parent; (3) the quality of behaviour associated with the traits perceived to be assigned by the non-custodial parent; and (4) the context of behaviours associated with traits perceived to be assigned by the non-custodial parent. Table 14 gives the major findings associated with this variable.

Table 14

The Adolescent's Perception of How He/She is Viewed by the Non-Custodial Parent

Quality of traits	Context of traits		Neutral	Quality of behaviour		Context of behaviour	
	Positive	Negative		Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Positive traits only	6 As a student	2 As a student	1 As a person	5 Positive behaviours	3 School	1 School	1
Negative traits only	7 As a person	16 As a person	15 As a person	10 Negative behaviours	6 Outside of home	9 Outside of home	9
Some positive/some negative traits	11 As a person	15 As a person	15 As a person	4 Positive and negative behaviours	1 Get along with siblings	4 Get along with siblings	4
Positive and neutral traits	1 In relation to non-custodial	5 In relation to non-custodial	1 In relation to non-custodial	7 No behaviour mentioned	4 Get along with non-custodial parent	8 Get along with non-custodial parent	8
Don't know	1 In relation to custodial	1 In relation to custodial	1 In relation to custodial	3 In relation to siblings	3 Tasks at home	3 Tasks at home	3
Total	26	29*	28*	1*	26	17*	22*

*Classes are not mutually exclusive, therefore total does not equal 26

Quality of Traits

The responses within this category yielded five classifications which describe the category. Six of the subjects perceived only positive traits assigned to them by the non-custodial parent. "Innocent" and "smart" are two examples of traits given by the subjects. Of the 26 subjects, seven indicated only negative traits they viewed the non-custodial parent as assigning to them. An example of a negative trait perceived to be assigned to a subject would be "bold" or "immature." Eleven of the subjects responded with some positive and some negative traits they viewed were assigned to them by the non-custodial parent. One subject indicated a neutral trait perceived to be assigned to him along with some positive traits. One subject responded that he did not know how he was viewed by the non-custodial parent.

Context of Traits

The context in which traits were perceived assigned to the adolescent by the non-custodial parent formed the basis for this category. Within this category were three sub-categories. These sub-categories were: (a) the context of positive traits; (b) the context of negative traits; and (3) the context of neutral traits.

(a) Context of Positive Traits

There were three subjects who responded with positive traits in relation to their performance of tasks at home.

"Good" was a trait perceived to be assigned to one subject by the non-custodial parent and was applied when the subject would "clean up the house." Five subjects viewed positive traits assigned to them in relation to the non-custodial parent themselves. One subject reported that she was the father's "favourite" and he viewed her as a "sweet, innocent little girl" who didn't "do anything wrong." One subject perceived a positive trait assigned to him/her in relation to the custodial mother. This subject felt that the non-custodial parent viewed him/her as "good" because the custodial mother had told the non-custodial parent how "good" the adolescent had been. Two subjects perceived positive traits assigned to them in relation to siblings. These two subjects both viewed positive traits assigned to them on the basis of comparison with siblings. For example, one subject indicated that the non-custodial parent viewed them as mature, e.g., "He thinks that I'm maturing faster [emotionally] than my sister." Two subjects indicated positive traits assigned to them on the basis of their role as student. One subject indicated that he/she was viewed as a "good kid" and that the non-custodial parent was proud of him/her because he/she did "pretty good in school." Sixteen of the adolescents perceived positive traits assigned to them as a person. These included both personality traits and social characteristics. Of these, 14 described personality traits and two described social characteristics. Such personality traits as responsible,

honest, and fair were in this category. An example of a social characteristic would be "friendly."

(b) Context of Negative Traits

Six subjects responded with negative traits in relation to the non-custodial parent. For example, one subject indicated that the non-custodial parent did not trust him/her and said, "He thinks I act like a ten year old, like he can't leave me alone or I'll get into trouble or something." Two subjects perceived negative traits being assigned to them in relation to the non-custodial parent. One subject indicated that the non-custodial parent viewed him/her as spoiled because "Mom spoils me." Three subjects responded with negative traits in relation to their siblings. One adolescent indicated, "He would say I'm bossy. I like bossing around. It's fun to boss them around until they go to mother." Two of the subjects perceived negative traits assigned to them by the non-custodial parent in relation to their role as a student. One subject indicated that she didn't "try hard enough in school. He thinks I could do better." Fifteen subjects perceived negative traits assigned to them as a person. Six of these indicated negative personality traits; one indicated a negative physical trait and eight indicated negative social traits. Examples of negative personality traits would be "irresponsible" and "immature." Examples of negative social traits would be "troublemaker" and "shy."

(c) Context of Neutral Traits

There was one subject who responded with a neutral trait. This trait was categorized as descriptive of the adolescent as a person as it described a personality characteristic.

Quality of Behaviour

Responses in which subjects indicated behaviours associated with traits perceived assigned to them were classified within this category. Responses were further classified in terms of the positive or negative nature of the behaviour.

Of the total sample, five subjects indicated positive behaviours associated with the traits perceived to be assigned to them by the non-custodial parent. Ten subjects indicated negative behaviours associated with the traits perceived to be assigned to them. Four subjects indicated both positive and negative behaviours associated with traits perceived to be assigned by the non-custodial parent. There were seven subjects who did not respond with behaviours associated with the traits perceived to be assigned to them.

Context of Behaviour

Positive and negative behaviours associated with perceived traits were then categorized in relation to the context in which they occurred. Two sub-categories were developed from the data. These sub-categories were:

(a) the context of positive behaviour, and (b) the context of negative behaviour.

(a) Context of Positive Behaviour

There were three subjects who responded with positive behaviours in regard to their role as a student. One subject said, "He's proud of me 'cause I do pretty good in school and when we have drama at school he comes and sees it." Six subjects indicated positive behaviour outside of the home. As an example, one subject stated that the non-custodial parent would say he/she could take care of him/herself and knew his/her "way around." One subject indicated positive behaviour in terms of getting along with siblings. There were four subjects who responded with positive behaviours related to the non-custodial parent themselves. An example given by one subject was that the non-custodial parent felt positively towards him/her if he/she listened to the non-custodial parent. Behaviours associated with tasks at home were indicated by three subjects. One subject stated that if he/she would "make supper" that the non-custodial parent had the opinion that he/she was "good."

(b) Context of Negative Behaviour

One subject indicated negative behaviours related to school performance. There were nine subjects who responded with negative behaviours outside of the home. One subject stated that the non-custodial parent had the opinion he/she was a "bad kid" when he/she would "throw stones at houses,

cars or at other kids." Four subjects responded with negative behaviours in relation to getting along with siblings. Negative traits were associated with arguing or fighting with siblings. One subject stated a negative trait when he/she would "beat up my brother for no reason." The non-custodial parent had the opinion that he/she was "bad" in this case. Eight subjects responded with negative behaviours associated with getting along with the non-custodial parent. One subject stated, "He thinks I'm always out for whatever I can get. He thinks the only time I go with him is when they're going out to get food or something. He thinks I'm a 'smart ass'. I always tell him what I think of him. I'll tell him to 'screw off' and that."

CHAPTER V

INTERPRETATION OF DATA AND FINDINGS

This chapter focuses on the interpretation of the major findings of the study as they relate to the research question:

What are the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents?

The adolescents' perceptions of the custodial and non-custodial parent are discussed in terms of the quantitative and qualitative data and findings. First, the quantitative data and findings are discussed in relation to the custodial and non-custodial parents. A second section presents the interpretation of the qualitative data and findings in relation to the custodial and non-custodial parent. Lastly, a summary of the major findings as they relate to the research question is presented.

The section pertaining to the quantitative findings contains sections on each of the seven variables within which the distributions of the adolescents' perceptions of each parent are interpreted. In addition, comparisons of perceptions of the custodial parent and the non-custodial parent are made in light of the results of the t-tests and mean values for the distributions. Distributions of adolescents' perceptions of their parents are best inter-

puted in relationship to other variables in the study. Accordingly, discussions of the significant relationships have been included in each section.

In addition, interpretations of the results of the multiple regression analyses are presented for each variable. These results indicated which of the variables may be significant contributors to each of the major variables. Multiple regression analyses were performed since the seven variables for the custodial parent (with two exceptions) were found to be intercorrelated (Appendix G). Intercorrelations were also found among the seven variables for the non-custodial parent (Appendix H). It is suggested from these findings that the seven variables taken together form a consistent picture of the adolescent's perception of the custodial and the non-custodial parent.

Significant differences were found between related and unrelated adolescents in their perceptions of the custodial parent. These differences were found on each of the seven variables for the custodial parent with the exception of stability. The interpretations of these findings are presented as a whole at the end of the section pertaining to the interpretations of the quantitative findings.

The qualitative findings are interpreted in terms of the three variables which were addressed by the open-ended questions. Where indicated, these findings are discussed as they relate to the quantitative findings.

The Adolescents' Perceptions of Their Custodial
and Non-Custodial Parents

Interpretation of Quantitative
Data and Findings

Although the distributions of scores on the seven variables are each unique, they may be interpreted in the context of the features of a normal distribution. The scale of measurement devised by the researchers assumed a normal distribution, where scores could range from 4 to 20. A midpoint value of 12 with scores for the 26 subjects evenly distributed on positive and negative poles would constitute the normal curve.

Adolescents tended to perceive the custodial parent positively on each of the seven variables. All of the mean scores were above the midpoint value (12) for the scale.

Values for all the variables were concentrated to the right of the curve; distributions were characteristically skewed to the left.

The mean scores on the seven variables pertaining to the non-custodial parent presented a somewhat different picture. The non-custodial parent was viewed positively only in relation to stability, friendliness, and nurturance. The non-custodial parent, however, was not viewed at either extreme in relation to idealization, dependability, attachment, and identification. The mean scores for the seven variables for each parent, and the significant differences between each parent, were illustrated in Table 4.

Attachment

The mean score for the adolescent's perception of attachment in the custodial parent was 14.42. This score indicated that adolescents perceived the custodial parent positively in relation to this variable. The mean for the scores related to perception of attachment in the non-custodial parent was 11.27. Thus, subjects did not view their non-custodial parent at either extreme in terms of attachment. Results of the t-tests revealed that a significant difference did exist between the perception of attachment for the custodial and the non-custodial parents.

The researchers found that the adolescent's perception of attachment in the custodial parent varied with the occupation of the non-custodial parent. The findings did not indicate how these perceptions varied, nor with which occupation they varied. The researchers, however, have speculated as to the reasons for these variations.

Roles of men and women in present-day society may be contributing factors to the finding that the adolescent's perception of attachment in the custodial parent varies with the occupation of the non-custodial parent. Male roles are typically defined in terms of instrumental behaviours; female roles are defined in terms of expressive behaviours (Parsons & Bales, 1955). Since men are most often (24) the non-custodial parent and women the custodial parent (24), this typology seemed appropriate. One facet of the instru-

mental role is the pursuit of an occupation. The demands of this role may leave the non-custodial parent unavailable to fulfill expressive functions for the adolescent. As a result, the expressive role of the custodial parent could become more clearly defined in order to meet the adolescents' needs.

Variations in the perception of attachment in the custodial parent may be related to the financial resources available to the family in the form of support payments. Bane (1976) notes the importance of financial security to the single-parent family. Wallerstein and Kelly (1974) state that worry over money was a factor in the insecurity adolescents felt after divorce. If this is the case, financial security provided by the non-custodial parent in the wage-earner role may leave the custodial parent free to perform an expressive role rather than going to work to support the family. In consequence, the adolescent's perception of attachment would vary with the occupation of the non-custodial parent.

A negative association was found between the age of the subject and the degree to which he/she perceived the non-custodial parent in terms of attachment. The adolescent may have just cause for perceiving their non-custodial parent in this manner for a number of studies have indicated that the non-custodial parents often do detach themselves from their children (Seagull & Seagull, 1974; Abarbanel,

1979; Greif, 1979). Another contributing factor may be the adolescent's own process of decathecting from parents as it occurs during this phase of development (Blos, 1962). The younger adolescent is more dependent upon the parents to meet the need to feel wanted, while the older adolescent's dependency is lessened as he/she increasingly turns to extra-familial objects. Hetherington (1979) noted that coping strategies and responses to divorce will vary with age.

An increase in the amount of time spent with the non-custodial parent was found to be associated with an increase in the perception of attachment in the non-custodial parent. In their study, Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) reported the following finding in relation to contact by the non-custodial parent:

In the most unsatisfactory visiting arrangements, a range of parental behavior, from outright abandonment to general unreliability, often disappointed a child repeatedly usually leading the child to feel rejected, rebuffed, and unloved and unlovable. (p. 72)




A non-custodial parent who spent very little time with his/her adolescent may quite naturally be perceived as detached.

Adolescents appear to view the quantity of contact as an indication of being wanted.

The researchers found that for the custodial parent nurturance may contribute most to the adolescent's perception of attachment in this parent. However, dependability was found to possibly contribute most to the perception of attachment in the non-custodial parent.

It is suggested that nurturing functions are intricately tied to the process of attachment for the custodial parent. In infants, feeding has been shown to contribute to attachment between mother and child (Maccoby, 1980). This attachment bond endures through time (Klaus & Kennell, 1972). This suggests that nurturance is necessary in order to secure the attachment bond even into adolescence. Mothers are socialized to perform in the nurturing role. The finding that nurturance contributes most to the perception of attachment in the custodial parent, 24 of whom were women, seems consistent with the literature regarding role definition of women in society.

Dependability, rather than nurturance, appears to be a key factor in the perception of attachment in the non-custodial parent. Perceived dependability may be so closely related to attachment in the non-custodial parent as adolescents are dependent upon the availability of this parent in order to lessen their feeling of abandonment. Hetherington et al. (1976) found that over time divorced fathers (non-custodial) detached themselves from their children. Thus, if a non-custodial parent was viewed as dependable, probably he/she maintained consistent contact with the adolescent. Thus, the non-custodial parent would not be perceived as detached.



Nurturance

The adolescents perceived their custodial parents positively in terms of nurturance as indicated by a mean score of 16.38. A mean score of 13.92 on nurturance for the non-custodial parent indicated that these parents were also perceived positively. Significant differences between the means were found when adolescents' perceptions of the custodial parent and of the non-custodial parent were compared in terms of nurturance. The direction of these differences was unknown. The means for each parent, however, indicate that the custodial parent was perceived as more nurturant than the non-custodial parent.

Custodial parents (24 of whom were women) may be perceived positively due to the expectation that they fulfill a nurturing function for their children (Parsons & Bales, 1955). Also, the custodial parent is available to the adolescent. A possible explanation for the non-custodial parent being viewed as less nurturant than the custodial parent is that his/her physical/emotional distance is seen as a lack of caring and concern. This parent is unavailable to express caring on a day-to-day basis, which is important to the adolescent's sense of security.

The researchers found that the adolescents' perception of nurturance in the custodial parent was negatively associated with the age of the subjects. Reliance on peers, siblings and teachers for nurturance after divorce is

characteristic of older rather than younger children (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1979). This reliance on persons other than parents is not, however, exclusive to adolescents of divorce. Development during adolescence necessitates achieving emotional independence from the parents (Bernard, 1971), and shifting the social locus from the primary love objects to others, especially the peer group (Blos, 1962).

The above finding seems consistent with normative development during adolescence. However, Rohrlich, Ranier, Berg-Cross, L. and Berg-Cross, G. (1977) state that some adolescents exhibit regressive behaviour to seek the nurturance they knew prior to the divorce. An acceleration in development post-divorce was noted in the adolescents studied by Wallerstein and Kelly (1974). Their findings were not confirmed in this study.

The researchers also found that the grade level of the subjects was negatively associated with the perception of nurturance in the custodial parent. Academic level is usually related to chronological age. The researchers suggest that parallel interpretations may be applied to the findings of negative associations between age and nurturance, and grade and nurturance in the custodial parent. Both of these findings are linked with development during adolescence.

The hours worked by both the custodial and non-custodial parent were found to be positively associated with the perception of nurturance in the non-custodial

parent. It is possible that the adolescent perceived the non-custodial parent as nurturant for this parent's employment may provide for some of the adolescent's needs. The financial situation of families post-divorce has been found to be a concern of adolescents (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974). If adolescents felt that financial security was ensured by employment, they may have perceived that they were cared for by the non-custodial parent.

When the custodial parent's hours of work increased, the adolescent also perceived the non-custodial parent as more nurturant. When this occurs, the non-custodial parent may be expected to take more responsibility for caring for the adolescent. This situation would contribute to the non-custodial parent being perceived as nurturant.

The number of visits, and the time spent with the adolescent by the non-custodial parent were positively associated with the perception of this parent as nurturant. The non-custodial parent's willingness to spend time with the adolescent was perceived as a measure of this parent's emotional caring. Hetherington et al. (1976) report that fathers became less nurturant and more detached from their children as the time following the divorce lengthened. This appears to be consistent with the finding regarding time spent with the non-custodial parent (24 of whom were men). Also, "frequent, flexible, visiting patterns remained important to the majority of the children" in a study by Wallerstein and Kelly (1980, p. 71).

The degree of perceived nurturance of the non-custodial parent varied with the geographic location of this parent. The findings did not indicate which geographic locations influenced the perceptions of nurturance in the non-custodial parent or how these perceptions varied. Geographic distance between the non-custodial parent and the adolescent may determine the frequency of visits and thus the perception of emotional distance by the teen. McDermott (1968) discusses the temporary disruption of key relationships in the family caused by the geographic inaccessibility of the father following divorce. Geographic inaccessibility was found to influence the nurturance aspect of the relationship between the non-custodial parent and the adolescent.

Adolescents' perceptions of nurturance in their non-custodial parents were found to vary with the shift worked by these parents. The finding did not indicate how these perceptions varied, nor with which shifts they varied. The availability of the non-custodial parent to the adolescent may be determined by the shifts which he/she works. Perhaps, alternating shifts or midnight shifts would lessen access to the subject. This lessened access may be perceived by the adolescent as a lack of caring.

The regression analyses on the variable nurturance revealed that the perception of attachment in the custodial parent may have contributed most to the perception of nurturance in the custodial parent. The perception of friendliness (negative pole hostility) and of idealization in the

non-custodial parent may have contributed most to the perception of nurturance in the non-custodial parent. The finding in regard to the custodial parent indicates that attachment and nurturance are intricately tied in the adolescent's perceptions of the custodial parent. McDermott (1968) and Hetherington (1979) note that children's responses to divorce are influenced by the emotional availability of the parents. The custodial parent is available to nurture the adolescent. As a consequence, the attachment bond between the adolescent and the custodial parent is strengthened.

The researchers suspect that the adolescent's view of the non-custodial parent as both nurturant and friendly may result from a tendency to overidealize the non-custodial parent. "There is a tendency toward overidealization of the absent parent . . . the ideal father endowed with fine qualities which are exaggerated in imagination" (Symonds, 1949, p. 104).

Hostility

The mean score for the perception of hostility in the custodial parent was 14.46. This score indicated that adolescents tended to perceive the custodial parent as friendly rather than hostile. The adolescents also tended to perceive their non-custodial parent as friendly as indicated by the mean score value of 13.92 for this variable. T-tests performed to test the differences between means for

the custodial and non-custodial parent in terms of the perception of hostility were not significant.

The literature reviewed did not indicate that custodial parents would be perceived as friendly. However, as the custodial parent was generally perceived positively, the scores on this variable were consistent with the total pattern. Perhaps, the availability of the custodial parent to the adolescent influences the adolescent in perceiving this parent positively.

As the hours worked by the non-custodial parent increased, the perception of this parent as friendly (negative pole hostile) increased. The researchers speculate that the more hours the non-custodial parent works, the more he/she is likely to possess a sense of self-worth, particularly in terms of fulfilling the instrumental role (Parson & Bales, 1955). Greif (1979) states that one of the areas in which fathers can influence the development of their children is in the financial decision-making pertaining to their children. Continued influence in this area would lead to a more positive sense of self due to continued parental involvement. In addition, the more hours the non-custodial parent works, the more he/she may contribute to the support of the adolescent. As a result, this parent would likely be viewed positively, i.e., friendly, caring, concerned.

An increase in the amount of visits by the non-custodial parent with the adolescent was found to be associated with an increase in the perception of the non-

custodial parent as friendly. Lamb (1977) claims that friendliness and accessibility influence the psychosocial development of children in father-absent homes.

Nurturant, competent, accessible fathers facilitate the psychosocial development of both sons and daughters whereas hostile, distant or inaccessible fathers (whether absent or present) inhibit the process of sociopersonality development. (p. 169)

The present study has shown that the perception of hostility and inaccessibility are interrelated for the non-custodial parent.

The perception of the non-custodial parent as hostile or friendly was found to be significantly different between mother and father custody adolescents. The t-test performed did not indicate the direction of this difference. There may, however, be a tendency for the adolescent to perceive the non-custodial mother as hostile. Usually, custody is awarded to mothers (Peters, 1979). A custody award in favour of the father may be related to the inability of the mother to meet the adolescent's needs. This inability to meet the adolescent's needs may be perceived as a rejection of the nurturing role by the mother and, consequently, of the adolescent himself/herself. Thus, the non-custodial mother would be perceived as hostile.

The degree of perceived hostility in the non-custodial parent was found to vary with the geographic location of the non-custodial parent. This finding did not indicate how these perceptions varied, nor with which geographic locations. The non-custodial parent's willingness to

maintain frequent contact given their geographic location, however, may influence the subject's view of this parent on the continuum from hostile to friendly. Availability, once again, appears to contribute to the subject's positive or negative view of the non-custodial parent.

Multiple regression analyses on the hostility variable indicated that the perception of identification with the custodial parent may have contributed most to the perception of friendliness (negative pole hostility) in the custodial parent. The perception of identification and of nurturance in the non-custodial parent may have contributed most to the perception of friendliness in the non-custodial parent. It appears that adolescents who perceive their parents as friendly are apt to identify with them. Maccoby (1980) discusses identification as a mechanism whereby children pattern themselves after those they admire. It would seem logical that a parent who is friendly to the adolescent would be admired or viewed as someone with whom to identify. The ability of the non-custodial parent to nurture the adolescent may also lead to admiration of this parent. Thus, the adolescent would tend to identify with a non-custodial parent whom he/she perceived as nurturant and friendly.

The above findings would seem inconsistent with those of McDermott (1970) who noted that, after divorce, the child may identify with a hostile, rejecting parent. In

this study, parents who were perceived as hostile were less likely to be perceived by the adolescent as someone with whom to identify.

Stability

The adolescents' perceptions of their custodial parents in terms of stability were indicated by a mean score of 13.53. The mean score for the perceived degree of stability in the non-custodial parent was 14.31. Thus, subjects in this study were more prone to viewing the non-custodial parent as in control rather than distressed. There was a significant difference in the perception of stability for each parent as revealed by the results of the t-tests. Adolescents, therefore, tended to view the non-custodial parent as more stable than the custodial parent.

Hours worked by employed subjects were found to be positively associated with the perception of stability in the custodial parent. Adolescents who perceive the custodial parent as stable may feel secure enough to pursue employment and to work more hours than the adolescent who perceive this parent as unstable. Rohrllich et al. (1977) note that emotionally stable parents are able to let their children detach themselves. The adolescent may link perceived stability with the custodial parent's permission to pursue developmental tasks such as detaching themselves through work. Erikson (1950) notes that preparation for a societal role in a vocation is one of these developmental tasks.

Beal (1979), however, found that, after divorce, children in the "child-focused" families invested energy in looking after the parents' emotional health. Also, Kelly and Wallerstein (1979) noted that, after divorce, children worried about the parents' mental health and monitored their moods. This suggests that the adolescent's energy to pursue normal developmental tasks may be diverted by his/her attempt to care for the custodial parent. This may be a result of the custodial parent being perceived as unstable.

An increase in the perception of stability for the custodial parent was found to be associated with an increase in hours worked by the non-custodial parent. Hetherington et al. (1978) found that, after divorce, fathers tended to increase their workload to increase income needed to support two households. Perhaps, custodial parents (24 were women) would feel more secure and stable as a consequence of diminished worry over income. The stability of these custodial parents would then be perceived by the adolescents.

The perception of stability in the non-custodial parent was positively associated with the hours which the non-custodial parents worked, and the hours which the employed custodial parents worked. As the hours worked by non-custodial parents increased, they would be in a better position to provide financially for their offspring. Economic stability would contribute to the non-custodial parent being viewed as stable, particularly given the

children's anxieties regarding finances (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974). Also, the employment status of the non-custodial parent was found to make a difference in the degree to which this parent was perceived as stable.

Those non-custodial parents who were reported as employed were viewed as more stable than those reported as unemployed. The researchers speculate that employment is equated with financial security and, in turn, influences the degree of perceived stability..

The perception of the non-custodial parent as stable was positively associated with the hours worked by employed custodial parents. Perhaps the increase in hours worked by the custodial parent requires the non-custodial parent to take more responsibility for his/her children. In addition, the shift worked by the custodial parent was found to influence the perceived degree of stability in the non-custodial parent. Both of these findings may mean that the non-custodial parent becomes dependable and available as the custodial parent becomes increasingly unavailable. The adolescents in this case would be apt to perceive the non-custodial parent as more stable, as he/she took more responsibility for their parenting.

A significant relationship was also found to exist between the amount of visiting by the non-custodial parent and the degree of perceived stability of this parent. It would seem that subjects equated stability with the ability

) of the non-custodial parent to maintain frequent contact with them. A possible explanation may be the depression and withdrawal which non-custodial parents experience following the loss of their children. Greif (1979) found increased absence and depression to be related in her study of non-custodial parents (fathers). It is conceivable that subjects, sensing the non-custodial parent's depression often associated with loss, equated this with instability.

Differences in perception of the stability of the non-custodial parent were found between subjects. The researchers suspect that when the non-custodial parent is the subject's mother (2 subjects), then this parent is viewed as less stable. Traditionally, custody has been granted to the mother. When custody has been granted to the father, it may be due to the mother's inability to provide for the "best interests of the child" (Goldstein et al., 1979). Perhaps it is the very reason for which custody was granted to the father which influenced the subject's perception of instability in the mother.

The perception of the non-custodial parent as stable varied with the religion of the subject, and the geographic location of the non-custodial parent. The precise influence of these variables on the perception of stability is not known, for the statistical procedure utilized did not indicate direction of relationships. The researchers, however, speculated as to the possible impact of these variables on the degree of perceived stability.

7

The majority of the subjects in this study reported being either Roman Catholic or Protestant. The spiritual up-bringing associated with each of these religious affiliations appears to be a factor in relation to the perception of stability in the non-custodial parent. The exact impact of religion in relation to this parent is unknown. Non-custodial parents who were geographically distant may possibly be viewed as less stable due to their physical inaccessibility. Related to this is McDermott's (1968) claim that geographic inaccessibility causes temporary disruption in the relationship between the child and the parent without custody.

The regression on the variable stability for the custodial parent was not significant. However, dependability appeared to contribute most to the regression, even though the t-test was not significant. A parent who is pre-occupied with his/her own distress is unable to respond sensitively to the child (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1979). This insensitivity may surface in inconsistency and unreliability on the part of the custodial parent, and is likely to be perceived by the adolescent.

The variable idealization may be the most important contributant to the perception of stability in the non-custodial parent. It is conceivable that subjects would idealize and view this parent as stable for the adolescents are not in a position to observe the non-custodial parent's day-to-day functioning. There is already a tendency for subjects to overidealize this parent (Sorosky, 1977).

Dependability

The mean of the scores for the perception of dependability in the custodial parent was 14.53. The adolescents tended to perceive the custodial parent as dependable.

Non-custodial parents, however, tended to be perceived as unreliable, judging from a mean score of 11.31. The t-test indicated significant differences between adolescents' perceptions of dependability in their custodial and non-custodial parents. The test, however, did not indicate the direction of these differences. The custodial parents tended to be perceived as more dependable than the non-custodial parents.

The dependability of the non-custodial parent may be influenced more by the character of the visiting pattern, while the custodial parent represents continuity in the parent-child relationship. Inconsistent and infrequent contact with the non-custodial parent would undoubtedly be noticeable to the adolescent. Unreliable behaviour on the part of the custodial parent perhaps would be viewed less critically due to the fact that this parent is a constant in the adolescent's life.

The literature reviewed suggested that women occupy a nurturing role in relation to their children (Parsons & Bales, 1955). Part of this role would seem to require dependability in providing for the adolescent's needs. Since the majority (24) of the custodial parents in the sample

were women, their performance in the parenting role would reflect dependability and nurturance.

As the number of visits with the non-custodial parent increased, the adolescent's perception of the non-custodial parent as dependable increased. Hetherington et al. (1976) found that there was little continuity, especially for divorced fathers in the quality of the parent-child interaction when comparing the pre-separation and post-separation interaction. Contact seemed to be of major importance and Hetherington (1979) claimed that "This discontinuity is another factor contributing to the sense of unpredictability in the child's situation" (pp. 855-856). Increased visiting with the non-custodial parent may provide the adolescent with a sense of continuity in this relationship leading to a perception of the non-custodial parent as dependable.

A negative association was found between the number of step-siblings reported by the subjects and the degree of perceived dependability of the non-custodial parent. A negative association was also found between the combined number of siblings and step-siblings with the degree of perceived dependability of the non-custodial parent. Similar interpretations may be applied to both of these findings since there was no relationship found between the number of siblings and the perception of dependability. The presence of a number of offspring from various relationships would influence the time which the non-custodial

parent had available to devote to the adolescent. The non-custodial parent may be viewed as less dependable as a result of having to share his/her time with a number of children. The non-custodial parent may also be less motivated to visit adolescents who are living with children from the custodial parent's relationships subsequent to the divorce.

There were significant differences found between males and females in their perceptions of dependability in the non-custodial parent. The direction of these differences was not indicated. The researchers, however, speculated as to the differences which may exist. Often, same sex identifications occur (Sorosky, 1977). Subjects may be less likely to perceive the parent with whom they identified (or idealized) as undependable. Since the majority of the non-custodial parents in this study were male, and fathers maintain more frequent contact with their sons (Hess & Camara, 1979), there may be the tendency to view this parent as dependable due to the identification process.

The regression analyses on dependability revealed that the perception of nurturance in the custodial parent may have contributed most to the perception of dependability in the custodial parent (judging from the regression coefficients rather than the t-tests). The perception of attachment in the non-custodial parent may have contributed most to the perception of dependability in the non-custodial parent. Lidz (1968) notes that nurturance involves responding

to the child in accord with changing needs. This would imply that the custodial parent be dependable and consistent in providing for the needs of the child. When this is the case, the adolescent would perceive the custodial parent as nurturant and dependable.

Adolescents who viewed their non-custodial parent as dependable may have also perceived this parent positively in terms of attachment. Dependability and attachment seem to be highly interrelated in the adolescent's perception of the non-custodial parent. A full discussion of this relationship may be found under Attachment, page 159.

Identification

The mean for the scores related to the perception of identification with the custodial parent was 12.38. Adolescents did not view the custodial parent at either the positive or negative extreme of the scale. Subjects were not likely to identify greatly with the non-custodial parent as indicated by a mean value of 11.04 for the scores related to identification. The results of the t-tests performed on this variable indicated no significant differences between the perception of the custodial and non-custodial parent.

As the adolescent's age increased, they identified less with their custodial parent. Lawler (1964) states that as the adolescent matures, identifications with the parents become inadequate in adapting to an adult world. Most adolescents defend against dependence on and identifi-

cation with parents. This particular finding, therefore, appears to be consistent with development during adolescence.

Adolescents were found to identify less with their custodial parents as the hours this parent worked increased. It is suggested that the unavailability of the custodial parent who works has a negative influence on identification with this parent. The physical absence of this parent may leave the adolescent without a parent with whom he/she could identify. McDermott (1968) notes that mothers who work after a divorce (in the sample, 24 custodial parents were women) may be emotionally unavailable to the child. The adolescent's security may be shaken by the pressures associated with a mother going out to work (Sorosky, 1977). However, Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) found that children were not influenced for "good or ill" if the mother worked. The findings of this research suggest that identification with the custodial parent will be diminished where the custodial parent is a mother who works.

The number of visits (per year) with the non-custodial parent was found to be negatively associated with the adolescent's identification with the custodial parent. However, the adolescent's identification with the non-custodial parent was found to be positively associated with the number of visits, and total time spent (per year) with this parent. Thus, the visiting patterns of the non-custodial parent will significantly influence the adolescent's identification with their parents. Competition between

parents may play a role in the adolescent's identification with one parent over another. Kelly and Wallerstein (1977) reported, "Undoubtedly intense competition for the child's loyalty, found among a large group of parents, was played out most stridently in this visiting arena" (p. 53). As a consequence, the perception of identification with one parent would be altered.

These findings suggest that the more often the adolescent visits with the non-custodial parent, the less likely he/she is to identify with the custodial parent. A more positive link, however, exists between the amount of contact and identification with the non-custodial parent. It is conceivable that increased exposure to the parent would increase the likelihood of identification with him/her. Subjects would be more apt to note their similarities with the non-custodial parent. Also, visits with the non-custodial parent would have the potential for increasing closeness and continuing affection with the child (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1977). McDermott (1970) suggests that children of divorce identify with the absent parent for a specific purpose. He found:

High correlation between the child's symptoms and the description of the absent parent, suggesting an identification with a part, or fantasized part of that parent as a way of dealing with the loss and the conflict surrounding it for both mother and child. (p. 426)

The amount of contact was not examined as a factor in McDermott's study (1970).

The absence of a significant difference between males and females in their perception of identification with the custodial parent, or with the non-custodial parent, was an unexpected finding. In the sample, 24 of 26 custodial parents were women, and consequently 24 of the non-custodial parents were men. The adolescents in the sample were comprised of 15 females and 11 males. Differences were expected to exist due to the literature reviewed and the distributions of males, females, and custodial and non-custodial parents in the sample. Identification with the same sex parent was emphasized as crucial to adjustment after divorce in much of the literature reviewed (McDermott, 1968; Anthony, 1974; Sorosky, 1977; Hetherington, 1972; Lamb, 1977). The present study, however, suggests that sex difference may not be the overriding factor in the perception of identification with the custodial parent or the non-custodial parent, after divorce.

The results of the regression analyses performed on the variable identification for the custodial parent revealed that the variables hostility and idealization seemed to be the most important contributing variables. Similarly, hostility and idealization seemed to contribute most to the variable identification for the non-custodial parent. These findings indicate that subjects who identify with their parents may also perceive their parents as friendly, and idealize them. As noted by Maccoby (1980), a child will

identify with another person because of qualities he/she admires in that person. It would follow that the adolescents could identify with and idealize parents who were perceived as friendly.

Idealization

Adolescents tended to view the custodial parents positively in terms of the variable idealization. The mean score of 14.5 was an indicator of these positive perceptions. The non-custodial parent was not likely to be viewed at either the positive or negative extreme of the scale. This was indicated by a mean score of 12.27.

Significant differences were found between adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents in relation to idealization. The direction of these differences was not indicated by the t-test performed on the data. A comparison of mean values for each parent indicates that non-custodial parents were viewed less positively than custodial parents in terms of idealization. While the absent parent is most often idealized (Symonds, 1949), the present findings seem to indicate that this is not the case. A possible explanation may be the devaluation of the non-custodial parent as often occurs in post-divorce situations (Greif, 1979).

The researchers found that the academic level of the adolescent was negatively associated with the adolescent's perception of the custodial parent as an idealized figure.

The adolescent's chronological age may be related to his/her academic level. An increase in chronological age during adolescence is usually accompanied with physical and emotional development. Development during adolescence implies the abandonment of the parents as idealized figures and the formation of idealizations with others in the extra-familial environment (Russian, 1975). This phenomenon may be a factor in the finding regarding the decrease in idealization of the custodial parent with an increase in the academic level of the adolescent.

The number of visits with the non-custodial parent was negatively associated with the adolescent's perception of the custodial parent as an idealized figure. A positive association, however, was found between the number of visits with the non-custodial parent and the adolescent's perception of the non-custodial parent as an idealized figure. As contact with the non-custodial parent increases, the need to polarize perceptions of one parent as "good" and the other as "bad" may be decreased. These polarizations are sometimes noted to occur after divorce (Abarbanel, 1979; Sorosky, 1977). It is suggested that as visits with the non-custodial parent increase, the non-custodial parent is neither idealized as the "good" parent, nor deidealized as the "bad" parent. Rather, a more realistic perception of both the custodial and the non-custodial parent would emerge.

Whether the non-custodial parent himself/herself is an active contributor to the adolescent's perception of the

custodial parent as a deidealized figure or not is a matter for speculation. Perhaps, the non-custodial parent demeans the custodial parent as noted by Hetherington (1979). This is merely speculation, however, and as Wallerstein and Kelly (1977) state, "frequency of visits represents a separate dimension from the value or beneficiality of the total pattern to the children" (pp. 53-54).

Time spent with the non-custodial parent was also found to be positively associated with the adolescent's perception of this parent as an idealized figure. Subjects seemed to be more prone to idealizing the non-custodial parent as the amount of time spent with them increased. Visits with the non-custodial parent are often pleasurable experiences between parent and child, with lessened opportunity for conflicts to arise. Sorosky (1977) offered this insight regarding the positive view of the parent without custody, "in his new role of visiting parent the father has an opportunity to play the role of 'good guy' because he is not involved in the day-to-day disciplinary disputes" (p. 131).

The multiple regression analyses on the variable idealization revealed that the adolescent's perception of identification with the custodial parent seemed to contribute most to the adolescent's perception of the custodial parent as an idealized figure. The adolescent's perception of nurturance and identification with the non-custodial parent seemed to contribute most to the adolescent's perception of the non-custodial parent as an idealized figure.

The processes of identification and of idealization appear to be intricately tied in the adolescents' perceptions of their parents. Russian (1975) suggests that identification with and idealization of the parents are not totally abandoned during adolescence. Rather, they remain as security to the adolescent who is testing new roles in an adult world.

Adolescents were apt to deidealize a non-custodial parent whom they viewed as uncaring and with whom they did not identify. Two factors which may contribute to this deidealization are the demeaning of this parent by the custodial parent (Hetherington, 1979), or feelings of betrayal by one of the parents (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974). Thus, if the divorce was viewed as an act of betrayal on the part of the non-custodial parents, adolescents would be less apt to perceive these parents as nurturant, as well as less apt to identify with them.

Differences in Perceptions of the Custodial Parent Between Related and Unrelated Adolescents

Significant differences were found between adolescents who were related and those who were unrelated in their perceptions of the custodial parents. As evidenced by the t-tests, significant differences were found on all the variables with the exception of stability. The direction of these relationships was not known.

At an earlier stage in the analysis of data, these t-tests were computed for related and unrelated adolescents in relation to their perceptions of their mothers. That is, the two adolescents whose mother was the non-custodial parent were grouped with those adolescents whose mother was the custodial parent. These t-tests for related and unrelated adolescents were not found to be significant.

The perceptions of adolescents whose mother was the non-custodial parent differed from those adolescents whose mother was the custodial parent. These differences influenced the t-tests which were computed to find the significance of the differences between perceptions of related and unrelated adolescents in relation to the custodial parent.

It would seem that those adolescents whose mother was the non-custodial parent tended to perceive the non-custodial parent at the extreme negative end of the scale. It is suggested that fathers are awarded custody where mothers are unable to provide for the "best interests of the child" (Award, 1978; Goldstein et al., 1979). That is, fathers are awarded custody by default of the mother. This inability of the mother to perform in the traditional female role (Parsons & Bales, 1955) may be viewed by the adolescent as a rejection of the nurturing role and of the adolescent. As a consequence, mothers who do not have custody may be viewed negatively.

Interpretation of Qualitative Data and Findings

The qualitative data were generated from the open-ended questions related to the custodial and non-custodial parents. From these findings, the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents were profiled. Interpretations of the findings are based on the frequency distributions of the subjects within each category on each of the three variables:

- (1) the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents;
- (2) the adolescents' perceptions of the quality of the relationship with their custodial and non-custodial parents; and
- (3) the adolescents' perceptions of how they are viewed by their custodial and non-custodial parents.

The variable "the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents" proved the most fruitful. This may be a result of the fact that the other two variables measured the adolescents' perceptions in an indirect way. This portion of the chapter is subdivided according to each of the three variables mentioned above.

Adolescents' Perceptions of Their Custodial and Non-Custodial Parents

The majority (22) of the adolescents perceived the custodial parent as meeting their emotional needs. Non-

custodial parents were viewed less favourably than the custodial parent. Of the 14 adolescents who responded in terms of the non-custodial parent meeting their emotional needs, seven perceived their needs were met; seven perceived their needs were unmet. However, adolescents most frequently (17) desired change in relation to the non-custodial parent's ability to meet their emotional needs. The non-custodial parent was viewed as unreliable in this regard.

The perception of the custodial parent as meeting the emotional needs of the adolescent supports the quantitative finding that the custodial parent was perceived positively in terms of nurturance. The majority (24) of the custodial parents in our sample were women. Their socialization in the expressive role may provide some clue as to the reason these custodial parents were viewed as meeting the adolescent's emotional needs. Hetherington et al. (1978) and McDermott (1968) found that, after divorce, parents are unable to respond to the needs of the child because they are preoccupied with their own distress. This does not seem consistent with the findings in relation to adolescents' perceptions of their custodial parents as meeting their emotional needs.

The adolescents desired that the non-custodial parent change in terms of improving his/her capacity to meet the emotional needs of the adolescent. These subjects also made reference to the irresponsibility of this parent and

the limited amount of time which the non-custodial parent spent with them. Combined, these findings support the quantitative findings that the amount of time spent was positively associated with the perceptions of attachment and nurturance in the non-custodial parent (Hetherington, 1979; Rubin & Price, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). Reliable and frequent visiting increased the adolescent's perception of being wanted and cared for by the non-custodial parent.

Custodial parents were perceived as restrictive and overprotective in terms of discipline. There was an almost even split of positive (12) and negative (11) perceptions of the disciplinary role of the custodial parent. However, the greatest number of adolescents (17) wanted some changes in disciplinary practices of the custodial parent. These changes were expressed in the area of the custodial parent being "too strict" or "too overprotective." Permissiveness in parental control was found to be the case in a minority (2) of these responses. Hetherington et al. (1978), Levitin (1979) and Symonds (1949) note that custodial parents may become overprotective and restrictive in controlling their children after divorce. Undoubtedly, this restrictiveness will be perceived by the adolescent.

Non-custodial parents were also perceived poorly in the disciplinary aspect of their parenting. Of the subjects (12) who described their non-custodial parents in terms of their disciplinary role, the majority (9) indicated negative

perceptions. In the section regarding desired changes, many of the adolescents (8) clearly stated that they wished to alter certain discipline techniques of the non-custodial parent. The non-custodial parent's limited involvement after divorce may be part of the reason this parent was viewed negatively in the disciplinary role. Greif (1979) noted that non-custodial fathers who experienced less contact with their children following separation perceived a decrease in their influence in terms of teaching the child how to behave. Hetherington (1979) found that fathers, in particular, were extremely permissive initially, but became increasingly restrictive.

The loss of the non-custodial parents following divorce implies that custodial parents must be more responsible for controlling the adolescent. In response to this responsibility, they may become overprotective and restrictive. In effect, custodial parents must test their role as sole disciplinarian, a role which may have been shared previously with the non-custodial parent.

Adolescents perceived their custodial and non-custodial parents as persons in various and complex ways. Adolescents described their parents in terms of personality traits and their ability to relate to others. In addition, they were able to focus on the personal characteristics of the parents in which they desired change. These findings are consistent with those of Wallerstein and Kelly (1974) who state that:

Divorce appears to force the adolescent to separate out each parent as an individual, to formulate differential views of his parents qua individuals earlier than would be developmentally required. (p. 491)

These authors imply that the parents' explanation of the reasons for the divorce lends impetus to this process. As a consequence, the parents are viewed as separate persons with "incompatible needs, interests and goals" (p. 491).

Adolescents' views of their custodial and non-custodial parents as persons were positive ones. The custodial parent was perceived positively as a parent as indicated by quantitative and qualitative findings discussed earlier. These findings suggest that the custodial parent who is perceived positively as a parent will also be perceived positively as a person. As noted in the review of the literature, a well-adjusted person makes a good parent (Symonds, 1949). The ability to function as a parent may be related to the psychological and emotional health of the parent as a person (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980).

Non-custodial parents were also perceived positively as persons. Quantitative and qualitative findings, however, indicated that overall these parents were apt to be viewed negatively in regard to parenting. One explanation for these findings may be related to the tendency of the adolescent to overvalue the absent parent (Symonds, 1949). This tendency to overvalue the absent parent may manifest itself in idealizing the non-custodial parent as a person. In

conjunction, these findings seem to support the quantitative finding that the adolescents' perceptions of friendliness, nurturance and idealization in their non-custodial parents were interrelated.

Adolescents' Perceptions of the
Quality of the Relationship with
Their Custodial and Non-Custodial
Parents

The adolescents' perceptions of the quality of the relationship with their custodial and non-custodial parents were positive in these areas:

- (1) getting along with their custodial and non-custodial parents;
- (2) being understood by their custodial and non-custodial parents; and
- (3) verbal interaction with their custodial and non-custodial parents.

The researchers suspected that the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents would have implications for the parent-child relationship. Adolescents who got along, felt understood, and had positive verbal interaction with their parents perceived their parents positively. Negative perceptions of parents were related to negative relationships with parents.

Many of the adolescents in our sample responded that they spent time (9) and shared activities (13) with the custodial parent. Eight of 10 adolescents who responded

in terms of time spent with the non-custodial parent reported they spent very little time with this parent. Approximately one-half (14) of the subjects stated that they shared activities with the non-custodial parent.

It is suggested that time spent and activities shared with the custodial parent influence the adolescent's perception of the custodial parent. Jacobson (1978) points out that time and activity lost with mothers was significant in contributing to maladjustment scores. Thus, where the custodial parent (24 of 26 custodial parents were mothers) shares activities and spends time with the adolescent, the quality of the relationship would improve.

The responses of the subjects in regard to the lack of time spent with the non-custodial parent are supported in the literature. The detachment of the non-custodial parent from the child in order to cope with the loss has been reported by Abarbanel (1979), Greif (1979), and Seagull and Seagull (1974). Hetherington et al. (1976) also found that the contact between non-custodial divorced fathers steadily decreased over time.

In terms of activities shared with the non-custodial parent, many adolescents reported these activities occurred outside of the home. It is possible that more activities are shared outside of the home as the non-custodial parent may have difficulty in relating to the adolescent. As Seagull and Seagull (1977) note:

When the non-custodial father wishes to have his children visit him, then he frequently finds that he does not know what to do with them, either in terms of relating to them as people, or in terms of simple caretaking. (p. 12)

The Adolescent's Perception of How
He/She is Viewed by the Custodial
and Non-Custodial Parent

The majority (14) of the adolescents perceived that they were viewed both positively and negatively by the custodial parent. An additional number (7) of adolescents perceived that positive traits were assigned to them by the custodial parent, while some (6) adolescents perceived the assignment of negative traits by this parent. In relation to the non-custodial parent, those (6) adolescents who perceived themselves as viewed positively were approximately equal in number to those (7) who perceived themselves as viewed negatively by this parent. The major finding regarding this variable seemed to be that adolescents were able to link their parents' view of them with their own behaviours and the contexts in which these behaviours occurred. The majority of the behaviours which ultimately led to these perceptions were in relation to how the adolescent behaved in social situations.

The adolescents in this study appear to have identified their behaviours in social situations as the key factor influencing how they are perceived by their parents. Thus, in order to alter the views which their parents have of them, these adolescents would need to alter their behaviour.

Adolescents who exhibit positive behaviours may elicit positive perceptions of themselves from their parents. Consequently, parents may be able to alter their perceptions of their adolescents to elicit positive behaviours. Cook (1979) confirms these findings when he notes that behaviour is determined by the way people see each other. These considerations would seem crucial in terms of the treatment of parents and/or adolescents after divorce.

Summary

Adolescents generally perceived the custodial parent positively. Attachment and nurturance seemed to be the major contributors to these positive perceptions. Friendliness, identification and idealization were linked in the perceptions adolescents had of the custodial parent. However, the perception of attachment to and nurturance of the custodial parent seemed to determine this linkage. In addition, identification with and idealization of the custodial parent were negatively associated with the number of visits with the non-custodial parent. Custodial parents were perceived positively in terms of meeting the emotional needs of the adolescents.

Overprotectiveness seemed to be characteristic of the disciplinary pattern of the custodial parent and adolescents perceived necessary changes in this area. Overall, custodial parents were perceived positively as parents.

Adolescents also viewed the custodial parent positively as a person with unique personality and social characteristics. These positive perceptions were also true in regard to the relationship between custodial parent and adolescent. There was some ambiguity in how adolescents viewed the custodial parent's perception of them. Yet, adolescents were able to identify behaviours and situations which influenced how they might be perceived.

There seemed to be a conflict between positive and negative perceptions of the non-custodial parent. In general, adolescents perceived that their emotional needs were not being met by the non-custodial parent. In addition, non-custodial parents were perceived as poor disciplinarians. However, their views of the relationship with the non-custodial parent were positive. Attachment and dependability were key areas influencing the adolescents' views of their non-custodial parent. The variable "amount of visiting" correlated positively with each of the seven variables. This would seem to indicate that availability and dependability of the non-custodial parent were important in determining perceptions. Friendliness, identification and idealization were interrelated in the adolescent's perceptions of the non-custodial parent. The linkage between these three factors suggests that the non-custodial parent needs to be perceived as friendly if identification and consequently idealization are to take place. Overall, it would seem

that dependable and frequent contact with the non-custodial parent were indicative of positive perception of the non-custodial parent.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to explore the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial and non-custodial parents after divorce. A research question was formulated to guide the project: "What are the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents?". The researchers suspected that adolescents would polarize their views of their custodial and non-custodial parents into "good" and "bad." From the review of the literature, eight factors which were thought to contribute to the adolescents' views of their parents after divorce were identified. These eight variables were operationalized and measured to generate quantitative data to answer the research question. Three additional variables were linked to these eight variables. These three variables were operationalized and measured to generate qualitative data to answer the research question. All of these variables were utilized in constructing the data collection instrument.

The data collection instrument was a structured interview schedule. It contained three major sections. The first section was designed to yield a description of the sample. A second section generated qualitative data related to adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and

non-custodial parents. The third section yielded quantitative data related to adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents. This instrument was presented to a panel of judges in order to assess its validity. After minor revisions, the instrument was pre-tested to ensure its reliability. The instrument was then administered to a sample of 24 adolescents. Each of the researchers interviewed 12 adolescents. Two of the pre-test subjects were included in the final sample as they met the criteria of the study and no changes were made to the instrument subsequent to the pre-test. These 26 interviews generated the data on which the analysis and findings of the study were based. One of the eight variables designed to generate quantitative data was operationalized inappropriately. The findings for this variable were not reported. This variable was parental "control."

Major Findings

How are the Custodial and Non-Custodial Parents Perceived

Quantitative Findings

Adolescents tended to perceive their custodial parents positively on each of the seven variables. All mean scores on these variables were above the midpoint value (12) for the scale. Adolescents perceived their custodial parents most positively in terms of nurturance. The perceptions of

attachment, hostility (friendliness), dependability, and idealization in relation to the custodial parents were approximately equal as judged by the mean scores. Adolescents perceived their custodial parents positively in terms of stability and identification, but means were closer to the central value for the scale than those of the other five variables.

A somewhat different profile emerged for the non-custodial parent. Adolescents tended not to perceive their non-custodial parents at either the negative or the positive extreme of the seven variables. The mean scores for attachment, dependability, identification, and idealization clustered around the midpoint value (12) of the scale. The mean scores for nurturance, hostility and stability were slightly above the midpoint value on the scale. The most positive perceptions of the non-custodial parents were in relation to the stability of these parents. The mean score for the variable identification was the lowest of the seven variables. Thus, adolescents tended not to identify with their non-custodial parents.

A number of demographic variables were found to be related to the seven variables measuring perceptions of their custodial and the non-custodial parents.

The adolescents' perceptions of attachment in their custodial parents:

- (1) varied with the occupations of their non-custodial parents;

- (2) differed depending on whether or not a sibling was also interviewed by one of the researchers.

The adolescents' perceptions of attachment in their non-custodial parents:

- (1) were negatively associated with the age of the subjects;
- (2) were positively associated with the time spent with their non-custodial parents.

The adolescents' perceptions of nurturance in their custodial parents:

- (1) were negatively associated with the age, and academic level of the adolescents;
- (2) differed depending on whether or not a sibling was also interviewed by one of the researchers.

The adolescents' perceptions of nurturance in their non-custodial parents:

- (1) were positively associated with the hours worked by those employed custodial parents; with the hours worked by their non-custodial parents (including those unemployed); and with the number of visits and time spent with their non-custodial parents;
- (2) varied with the shift worked by their non-custodial parents; and with the geographic location of their non-custodial parents.

The adolescents' perceptions of hostility in their custodial parents:

- (1) differed depending on whether or not a sibling was also interviewed by one of the researchers.

The adolescents' perceptions of hostility in their non-custodial parents:

- (1) were positively associated with the hours worked by their non-custodial parents (including those unemployed); and with the number of visits with their non-custodial parents;
- (2) differed depending on the sex of their custodial parents;
- (3) varied with the geographic location of their non-custodial parents.

The adolescents' perceptions of stability in their custodial parents:

- (1) were positively associated with the hours worked by employed adolescents; with the hours worked by employed non-custodial parents; and with the hours worked by their non-custodial parents (including those reported as unemployed).

The adolescents' perceptions of stability in their non-custodial parents:

- (1) were positively associated with the hours worked by those employed custodial parents; with the hours worked by their non-custodial parents (including those unemployed); and with the number of visits with their non-custodial parents;

- (2) differed depending on the sex of their custodial parents; and whether their non-custodial parents were employed or unemployed;
- (3) varied with the religion of the subjects; with the geographic location of their non-custodial parents; and with the shift worked by their custodial parents.

The adolescents' perceptions of the dependability of their custodial parents:

- (1) differed depending on whether or not a sibling was also interviewed by one of the researchers.

The adolescents' perceptions of the dependability of their non-custodial parents:

- (1) were positively associated with the number of visits with their non-custodial parents;
- (2) were negatively associated with the number of step-siblings reported by the subjects; and with the number of siblings and step-siblings reported by the subjects;
- (3) differed depending on the sex of the subjects.

The adolescents' perceptions of identification with their custodial parents:

- (1) were negatively associated with the age of the adolescents; with the hours worked by those employed custodial parents; and with the number of visits with their non-custodial parents;
- (2) differed depending on whether or not a sibling was also interviewed by one of the researchers.

The adolescents' perceptions of identification with their non-custodial parents:

- (1) were positively associated with the amount of visits and with the time spent with their non-custodial parents.

The adolescents' perceptions of idealization of their custodial parents:

- (1) were negatively associated with the academic level of the adolescents; and with the number of visits with their non-custodial parents;
- (2) differed depending on whether or not a sibling was also interviewed by one of the researchers.

The adolescents' perceptions of idealization of their non-custodial parents:

- (1) were positively associated with the number of visits and with the time spent with their non-custodial parents.

Intercorrelations of the seven variables measuring adolescents' perceptions of their custodial parents were statistically significant with the exception of "stability and identification," and "stability and idealization." Multiple regressions assisted the identification of the variables which most contributed to the seven variables measuring adolescents' perceptions of their custodial parents. The identified variables contributing most to each of the seven variables for the custodial parent were:

- (1) attachment - nurturance
- (2) nurturance - attachment
- (3) hostility (friendliness) - identification
- (4) stability - dependability
- (5) dependability - nurturance
- (6) identification - hostility (friendliness) and
idealization
- (7) idealization - identification.

The most significant regression was in relation to the variable attachment where 89% of the variation was accounted for by the remaining six variables. The variables found to contribute most to the variables stability and dependability were judged on values of the estimated coefficients rather than on the significance of the t-tests.

Intercorrelations of the seven variables measuring the adolescents' perceptions of their non-custodial parents were all found to be statistically significant. The identified variables contributing most to each of the seven variables for the non-custodial parent were:

- (1) attachment - dependability
- (2) nurturance - hostility and idealization
- (3) hostility (friendliness) - nurturance and
identification
- (4) stability - idealization
- (5) dependability - attachment
- (6) identification - hostility and idealization
- (7) idealization - nurturance and identification.

The most significant regression was in relation to the variable idealization where 90% of the variation was accounted for by the remaining six variables.

7

Qualitative Findings

Custodial parents were viewed as meeting the emotional needs of the adolescents. Non-custodial parents, however, were viewed as not meeting the emotional needs of the subjects. Custodial parents were perceived as being restrictive and overprotective in their roles as disciplinarians. Non-custodial parents tended to be perceived negatively in their roles as disciplinarians. The majority of the adolescents viewed their custodial and non-custodial parents positively in relation to their personality traits.

A majority of the adolescents viewed their relationships with their custodial and non-custodial parents positively. The adolescents perceived that they got along and were understood by their parents. Positive verbal interaction with both parents was reported by the adolescents. Custodial parents were viewed positively by the adolescents in terms of spending time and sharing activities. The adolescents, however, reported that little time was spent with their non-custodial parents.

Adolescents perceived that they were viewed both positively and negatively by their custodial and non-custodial parents. Custodial and non-custodial parents were viewed as assigning personality traits to the adolescents on the

basis of the adolescents' behaviour. Adolescents recognized which positive behaviours elicited positive perceptions from their custodial and non-custodial parents. Similarly, adolescents were able to recognize which negative behaviours elicited negative perceptions from their custodial and non-custodial parents.

Recommendations

As a result of the findings of the study, the researchers have made recommendations in these three areas: research, policy, and intervention.

Research

The researchers identified a number of areas in which the methodology for the study could be refined. To facilitate further research, the following suggestions are made:

1. That an appropriate method of operationalizing the variable parent "control" be devised.
2. That a future sample chosen for study consist of equal number of related and unrelated subjects; or that the sample consist only of unrelated subjects.
3. That a research design be developed which includes, in the sample, a control group of adolescents whose parents had not divorced in order that comparison of adolescents from intact marriages with adolescents from marriages where divorce had occurred would be facilitated.
4. That the sample consist of either mother or father custody adolescents; or an equal number of each.

5. That the scope of this study be widened to include interviews which would obtain the perceptions of custodial and non-custodial parents in relation to each other, and to the adolescents..
6. That children at various developmental stages be studied in regard to their perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents.
7. That longitudinal studies be conducted that would examine adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and their non-custodial parents at various intervals following the divorce.
8. That the length of time since the divorce, and the separation, be incorporated as a variable in any study.

One of the major purposes of exploratory studies is to generate hypotheses for further research. This study generated these hypotheses for future study:

1. Adolescents will perceive their custodial parents more positively than they will perceive their non-custodial parents.
2. High prestige occupations of non-custodial parents will influence the perceptions of attachment in custodial parents more positively than will low prestige occupations.
3. Non-custodial parents who live in close proximity to their adolescents will be perceived as more nurturant, friendly, and stable than will non-custodial parents who live further away.

4. Non-custodial parents who work day shifts will be perceived as more nurturant than will non-custodial parents who work afternoons, midnights or rotating shifts.
5. Mother custody adolescents will perceive their non-custodial parents as more friendly and stable than will father custody adolescents.
6. Non-custodial parents who work will be perceived as more stable than will non-custodial parents who do not work.
7. Adolescents who have custodial parents who work a day shift will perceive their non-custodial parents as more stable than will adolescents who have custodial parents who work an afternoon or swing shift.
8. Adolescents who are male will perceive their non-custodial parents as more dependable than will adolescents who are female.

Policy

The researchers suggest that the following recommendations regarding policy changes be considered. These recommendations have been generated from the results of this study which point to gaps in social policy. Specific references have been given to the policy alterations which may bridge the identified gaps.

The value of continued contact between adolescents and their non-custodial parents has been illustrated in this

study. The researchers suggest that this factor should be of crucial importance when custody arrangements are being considered. This contact should be emphasized with a frequent pattern of visiting set by the courts. The judicial system may be inclined to view the non-custodial parent's role as one of financial supporter. However, this notion appears to be detrimental to the growth and development of children. Non-custodial parents should be encouraged to continue their parental role despite the fact that, legally, their roles as spouses have discontinued. The adolescents' negative perceptions of their non-custodial parents appears to be primarily attributed to the lack of availability of this parent. This is one method whereby policy could improve the parental involvement deemed to be important to the children's well-being.

The non-custodial parent's role as parent could also remain fairly constant if joint custody, when appropriate, were considered as an alternative. The appropriateness of this alternative warrants careful scrutiny by the decision-makers. The possible success of this arrangement is dependent upon the compatibility of the parents, among other factors. When feasible, this arrangement is advantageous as the responsibility for parenting is shared by the two parents. One parent is not expected to fulfill all the parenting functions to the exclusion of the other parent. The child, therefore, has both parents available to meet his/her needs.

From this study, the researchers concluded that the sex of the custodial parents did not seem to be a critical factor affecting the adolescents' perceptions of their parents. However, factors such as attachment, nurturance, and availability proved to be the most influential. Consideration for custody should be given to the parent most able to provide for these needs, regardless of sex. The researchers suspect that the traditional arrangements for custody have been based on the notion that mothers are the most appropriate parent. Fathers can and should be given the opportunity to perform the custodial parent role when deemed the most appropriate parent to meet the needs of the child. In addition, financial support should be made available to the father when he is the custodial parent. In essence, fathers with custody should be awarded the same rights as mothers with custody.

Policy changes at the service level are also warranted. The researchers speculate that, often, practitioners assume that intact, nuclear families are the norm. They must be alerted to the fact that since a variety of family forms currently exist, this assumption can no longer be made. Accordingly, changes in thought and approach to services for families should be considered. Divorce has been considered a deviation for too long. In reality, it is an increasingly common experience for families in North American society.

At the community level, social workers can support and work with groups which advance the rights of custodial and non-custodial parents. Professional support would lend legitimacy to these groups and increase the possibility of their rights being recognized at the legislative level.

Intervention

The results of this study indicate that a number of changes in the provision of services to this particular client population are in order. The following recommendations are made with regard to intervention with families of divorce:

1. That parents who are involved in divorce counselling be made aware of the importance of shared decision-making pertaining to their children, after divorce. Also, that these parents be reminded of the importance of continuity in parent-child relationships.
2. That non-custodial parents be involved in therapeutic interventions with the family, when indicated.
3. That custodial parents be encouraged to facilitate the children's contact with their non-custodial parents in the best interests of their children.
4. That custodial parents be reminded of the importance of the children's relationship with their non-custodial parents through the following channels: a) professional practitioners; b) community single-parent groups; c) the court system.

5. That increased supportive intervention be made available to the custodial parents thereby decreasing the need for these parents to look to their children for fulfillment.
6. That custodial and non-custodial parents receive assistance in dealing with the behaviour of their children during and following divorce so that they both may be able to continue to parent their children effectively.
7. That custodial and non-custodial parents be encouraged to engage in effective communication with their children so that divorce will be perceived as having occurred between husbands and wives and not between parents and children.

The purpose of this study was to explore the adolescents' perceptions of their custodial and non-custodial parents after divorce. The findings clearly demonstrated that the purpose of the research was achieved. A number of recommendations were made in the areas of social research, policy, and intervention. The researchers have provided insight in an area of importance in which little systematic knowledge existed.

APPENDIX A

LETTER TO PRESIDENT OF PARENTS WITHOUT PARTNERS
REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT THE
STUDY WITH ADOLESCENTS FROM THE
ORGANIZATION



216.

UNIVERSITY OF WINDSOR

WINDSOR, ONTARIO N9B 3P4

TELEPHONE: AREA CODE 519
253-4232

October 29, 1980

Mr. Raymond Marion, President
Parents Without Partners
Chapter No. 300
Box 621
WINDSOR, Ontario
N9A 6N4

Dear Mr. Marion:

I am writing to request permission for two of our graduate social work students, Lilly Guarasci and Theresa Sheehan, to carry out a study with the members of your teenage program.

The study would be carried out with those teenagers whose parents have been divorced. It would look at their perceptions of the custodial parent and the non-custodial parent. Each teenager who is willing to participate in the study would be seen for an interview, by either Lilly or Theresa. Confidentiality would be maintained throughout the project and names would not be used in compiling the results of the study. Written permission from the parent would be obtained for any teenager under 16 years of age who agrees to participate in the project.

Both Lilly and Theresa are professional social workers who have worked in the community prior to returning to university for their graduate degree.

We would be glad to provide you with a copy of the study when it is completed.

If you have any questions about the project I would be glad to discuss them with you. I can be reached at 253-4232 ext. 506.

I would appreciate receiving a written reply as to whether you and your group would grant permission for Lilly and Theresa to carry out this study with the members of your teenage program.

Yours sincerely,

DRC/ca.

SIGNED: D. Rosemary Cassano, MSW
Assistant Professor

APPENDIX B

PERMISSION LETTER FROM THE PRESIDENT
OF PARENTS WITHOUT PARTNERS



Parents Without Partners, Inc.

218.

An international non-profit, non-sectarian educational organization
devoted to the welfare and interests of single parents and their children

Reply to: Chapter No. 300
Post Office Box 621
Windsor, Ontario, Canada
N9A 6N4

D. Rosemary Cassano MSW,
Assistant Professor.

Dear Mrs. Cassano:

Having not heard from you or
Lilly and Theresa, I take it for granted that you
did not receive my reply to your letter of Oct. 29/80.

Once again yes Lilly and Theresa have permission
to carry out this study with our Teenage group providing
they obtain permission from the parents for ages 16 and under.

Yours sincerely
Raymond L. Mason

219.

APPENDIX C

PARENT CONSENT FORM



220.

UNIVERSITY OF WINDSOR

WINDSOR, ONTARIO N9B 3P4

TELEPHONE: AREA CODE 519
253-4232

PARENT CONSENT FORM

Ms. Lilly Guarasci and Ms. Theresa Sheehan, two graduate students in the Social Work Program at the University of Windsor, have invited my son/daughter to take part in their study.

It has been explained to me that they wish to have my son/daughter participate in their research project regarding their attitudes towards their custodial and non-custodial parents.

It is clear to me that their name will not be recorded and that their responses will remain anonymous. Any information provided by my son/daughter will remain strictly confidential.

I give permission to the above mentioned researchers to conduct an interview with my son/daughter.

DATE: _____ SIGNATURE: _____

WITNESS: _____

APPENDIX D

PERSONAL CONSENT FORM



222.

UNIVERSITY OF WINDSOR

WINDSOR, ONTARIO N9B 3P4

TELEPHONE: AREA CODE 519
253-4232

PERSONAL CONSENT FORM

Ms. Lilly Guarasci and Ms. Theresa Sheehan, master's students in Social Work at the University of Windsor have invited me to take part in a study.

It has been explained to me that I will be asked to provide some information concerning my attitudes toward my parents.

I have agreed to take part in this study and have consented to be interviewed by one of the researchers mentioned above.

It is clear to me that my name will not be recorded and that my answers will remain anonymous. Any information you may provide will be kept strictly confidential.

I agree to participate.

DATE: _____ SIGNATURE: _____

WITNESS: _____

APPENDIX E
RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

SECTION A

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

I'm going to ask you some questions about yourself and I will be writing down the answers as we go along.

AGE: 12 ____ 13 ____ 14 ____ 15 ____ 16 ____

SEX: Male ____ Female ____

ACADEMIC LEVEL COMPLETED:

Gr. 6 ____ Gr. 10 ____

Gr. 7 ____ Gr. 11 ____

Gr. 8 ____ Gr. 12 ____

Gr. 9 ____ Other ____

If other, what?

If you do not attend school, what do you do?

DO YOU WORK? Yes ____ No ____

If yes, how many hours do you work per week? ____

RELIGION:

Protestant ____ Jewish ____

Catholic ____ Other ____

None ____

These next few questions are about your custody and visiting arrangements with your mom/dad. We will be using the words custodial and non-custodial parent. By custodial parent we mean the parent who was granted care of you by the court. By non-custodial parent we mean the parent who was not granted care of you by the court.

WHO HAS CUSTODY OF YOU? Mother ____ Father ____

IS THE CONTACT YOU HAVE WITH YOUR NON-CUSTODIAL PARENT:

Voluntary? ____

Court Order? ____

Other Agreement? ____ If yes, what is the agreement?

Not sure ____ If you're not sure, can you give me any details you know about the visiting arrangement?

HOW OFTEN DO YOU HAVE VISITS WITH YOUR MOTHER/FATHER? FOR EXAMPLE, ONCE A WEEK, ONCE A MONTH, ONCE A YEAR, ETC.?

HOW LONG DO YOUR VISITS USUALLY LAST? FOR EXAMPLE, ONE HOUR, A WEEKEND, A MONTH, ETC.?

WHERE DO YOU USUALLY VISIT WITH YOUR MOTHER/FATHER?

Mother's home ____

Father's home ____

Outside of home ____ If outside of home, where do these visits usually take place?

WHO USUALLY ARRANGES VISITS WITH YOUR NON-CUSTODIAL PARENT?

Mother ____

Father ____

Self ____

Other ____ If other, who? For example, sister, grandparent, aunt, uncle, etc.?

WHERE DOES YOUR NON-CUSTODIAL PARENT LIVE?

Windsor ____

Within 5 miles ____

Within 10 miles ____

Another city in Ontario _____ Which city _____
 Another province _____ Which province _____
 Another country _____ Which country _____

Now I'm going to ask you some questions about your mother, father, sisters and brothers and their living arrangements, occupation, etc.

DOES YOUR MOTHER WORK?

Yes _____

No _____

If yes, how many hours does she work per week? _____

What hours does she work? _____

What is your mother's occupation? _____

DOES YOUR FATHER WORK?

Yes _____

No _____

If yes, how many hours does he work per week? _____

What hours does he work? _____

What is your father's occupation? _____

With which parent do you live? _____

COULD YOU TELL ME WHO ELSE
LIVES WITH YOUR MOM?

HOW ARE THESE PEOPLE
RELATED TO YOU?

COULD YOU TELL ME WHO ELSE
LIVES WITH YOUR DAD?

HOW ARE THESE PEOPLE
RELATED TO YOU?

HOW MANY BROTHERS DO YOU HAVE? AGES? _____

HOW MANY SISTERS DO YOU HAVE? AGES? _____

IF YOU HAVE STEP-BROTHERS, HOW MANY? AGES? _____

IF YOU HAVE STEP-SISTERS, HOW MANY? AGES? _____

WHAT BIRTH POSITION ARE YOU IN YOUR FAMILY? EXAMPLE, 1st
BORN, 2nd BORN, ETC.

SECTION B

ADOLESCENT INTERVIEWING SCHEDULE

The next set of questions is about how you see your mother and how you see your father. We will be writing as we go along.

1. If you were to describe your mother to another person, how would you describe her?

Can you tell me something about what she is like?
What kind of a person is she?
What are the main things you notice about her?

2. How would you say you get along with your mother?

Do you spend a lot of time with her?
What kind of things do you do?
Do you talk with her? What kind of things do you talk about? Do you feel she understands you?

3. If you were to describe your father to another person, how would you describe him?

Can you tell me something about what he is like?

What kind of a person is he?

What are the main things you notice about him?

4. How would you say you get along with your father?

Do you spend a lot of time with him?

What kind of things do you do?


Do you talk with him? What kind of things do you talk about? Do you feel he understands you?

5. If you were to change your mother in some way what would you change about her?

Are there things about her you do like?
Are there things about her you don't like?
Can you tell me what these things are?

6. What do you think is your mother's opinion of you?

She may have some idea of what you're like.
What do you think her idea is?
What does your mother think about you?



7. If you were to change your father in some way, what would you change about him?

Are there things about him you do like? *

Are there things about him you don't like?

Can you tell me what these things are?

8. What do you think is your father's opinion of you?

He may have some idea of what you're like.

What do you think his idea is?

What does your father think about you?

9. If I were to visit for a day with you and your mom,
what would I learn about how you get along with
each other?

What kind of things would I notice?
What would you be doing?

10. If I were to visit for a day with you and your dad,
what would I learn about how you get along with
each other?

What kind of things would I notice?
What would you be doing?

SECTION C

In this next section we will be giving you a number of statements related to your view of your mother. Listen to each statement carefully and decide how you feel about it.. You will agree or strongly agree with some statements, and you will disagree or strongly disagree with others. You may not be sure about some. To help you express your opinion we have given you five possible answers on the card in front of you. Choose the answer which most expressed how you feel. There are no right answers and no wrong answers. It is your own honest opinion that we want.

1. My mother is usually easy-going with me.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

2. My mother will let me do anything I want.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

3. My mother is too strict.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

4. My mother doesn't seem to care one way or another about what I do.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

5. I don't have much in common with my mother.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

6. My mother acts in a mean way towards me.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

7. My mother gets angry with me a lot of the time.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

8. My mother has a hard time handling her life.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

9. If I were to describe myself, I would describe myself as like my mother.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

10. My mother has changed for the worse.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

11. My mother takes good care of me.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

12. My mother is always saying she will do something and then doesn't do it.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

13. I won't be the kind of person my mother is.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

14. My mother is able to handle her difficulties.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

15. I am like my mother.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

16. I would like to be like my mother.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

17. My mother is depressed a lot of the time.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

18. My mother is someone I look up to.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

19. My mother has gone down in my estimation

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

20. My mother has things under control at home.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

21. I am close to my mother.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

22. I can't count on my mother to do something that she said she would.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

23. My mother sets down too many rules for me to follow.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

24. My mother will do what she has promised me she will do.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

25. I can depend on my mother.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

26. My mother acts in a friendly way towards me.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

27. My mother is able to show affection towards me.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

28. My mother is always there when I need her.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

29. My mother does not care about what I need or want.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

30. There are barriers between my mother and me.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

31. My mother does not like me.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

32. My mother is just not there when I need her.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

From this point on the statements will be related to your view
of your father.

1. My father doesn't seem to care one way or another about
what I do.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

2. I am like my father.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

3. I don't have much in common with my father.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

4. I can depend on my father.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

5. My father is always saying he will do something then
doesn't do it.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

6. My father acts in a mean way towards me.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

7. My father is just not there when I need him.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

8. I won't be the kind of person my father is.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

9. If I were to describe myself, I would describe myself as like my father.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

10. My father gets angry with me a lot of the time.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

11. My father will let me do anything I want.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

12. My father does not like me.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

13. My father is depressed much of the time.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

14. My father is able to handle his difficulties.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

15. My father has changed for the worse.

STRONGLY DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY AGREE ____

16. My father sets down too many rules for me to follow.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

17. I am close to my father.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

18. My father has a hard time handling his life.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

19. My father will do what he has promised he will do.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

20. My father is usually easy-going with me.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

21. My father is too strict.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

22. My father has gone down in my estimation.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

23. I would like to be like my father.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

24. My father has things under control at home.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

25. My father acts in a friendly way towards me.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

26. My father is able to show affection towards me.

STRONGLY
DISAGREE ____ DISAGREE ____ UNCERTAIN ____ AGREE ____ STRONGLY
AGREE ____

27. My father is someone I look up to.

STRONGLY DISAGREE _____ DISAGREE _____ UNCERTAIN _____ AGREE _____ STRONGLY AGREE _____

28. I can't count on my father to do something when he said he would.

STRONGLY DISAGREE _____ DISAGREE _____ UNCERTAIN _____ AGREE _____ STRONGLY AGREE _____

29. There are barriers between my father and me.

STRONGLY DISAGREE _____ DISAGREE _____ UNCERTAIN _____ AGREE _____ STRONGLY AGREE _____

30. My father is always there when I need him.

STRONGLY DISAGREE _____ DISAGREE _____ UNCERTAIN _____ AGREE _____ STRONGLY AGREE _____

31. My father takes good care of me.

STRONGLY DISAGREE _____ DISAGREE _____ UNCERTAIN _____ AGREE _____ STRONGLY AGREE _____

32. My father does not care about what I need or want.

STRONGLY DISAGREE _____ DISAGREE _____ UNCERTAIN _____ AGREE _____ STRONGLY AGREE _____

APPENDIX F
STATEMENTS MEASURING THE
EIGHT VARIABLES

STATEMENTS MEASURING THE EIGHT VARIABLES

1. Degree of Attachment

- | | | |
|----------------|---|-------------------------------------------------------------|
| Attachment | - | I am close to my mother (father). |
| Positive items | - | My mother (father) is always there when I need her (him). |
| Detachment | - | There are barriers between my mother (father) and me. |
| Negative items | - | My mother (father) is just not there when I need her (him). |

2. Degree of Nurturance

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|-------------------------------------------------------------|
| Nurturing | - | My mother (father) takes good care of me. |
| Positive items | - | My mother (father) is able to show affection towards me. |
| Emotionally unresponsive | - | My mother (father) does not care about what I need or want. |
| Negative items | - | My mother (father) does not like me. |

3. Degree of Hostility

- | | | |
|----------------|---|----------------------------------------------------------|
| Friendliness | - | My mother (father) is usually easy-going with me. |
| Positive items | - | My mother (father) acts in a friendly way towards me. |
| Hostility | - | My mother (father) acts in a mean way towards me. |
| Negative items | - | My mother (father) gets angry with me a lot of the time. |

4. Degree of Control

- | | | |
|----------------|---|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Permissive | - | My mother (father) doesn't seem to care one way or another about what I do. |
| Positive items | - | My mother (father) will let me do anything I want. |
| Restrictive | - | My mother (father) is too strict. |
| Negative items | - | My mother (father) sets down too many rules for me to follow. |

5. Degree of Stability

- | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
| In control
Positive items | - My mother (father) has things under control at home. |
| | - My mother (father) is able to handle her difficulties. |
| Distressed
Negative items | - My mother (father) is depressed a lot of the time. |
| | - My mother (father) has a hard time handling her (his) life. |

6. Degree of Dependability

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Reliable
Positive items | - I can depend on my mother (father) |
| | - My mother (father) will do what she (he) has promised me she (he) will do. |
| Unreliable
Negative items | - My mother (father) is always saying she (he) will do something and then doesn't do it. |
| | - I can't count on my mother (father) to do something that she (he) said she (he) would. |

7. Degree of Identification with Parent

- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Similar
Positive items | - I am like my mother (father). |
| | - If I were to describe myself, I would describe myself as like my mother (father). |
| Dissimilar
Negative items | - I don't have much in common with my mother (father). |
| | - I won't be the kind of person my mother (father) is. |

8. Degree of Idealization

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------|
| Idealization
Positive items | - I would like to be like my mother (father). |
| | - My mother (father) is someone I look up to. |
| Deidealization
Negative items | - My mother (father) has gone down in my estimation. |
| | - My mother (father) has changed for the worse. |

APPENDIX G

PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS (r)
FOR INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE SEVEN VARIABLES
MEASURING ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE
CUSTODIAL PARENT

PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS (\bar{r})
FOR INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE SEVEN VARIABLES
MEASURING ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE
CUSTODIAL PARENT

Variable	Attach- ment	Nur- turance	Hostility	Stability	Depend- ability	Identifi- cation	Idealiza- tion
Attachment	-						
Nurturance	\bar{r} .91 \bar{p} .0001	-					
Hostility	\bar{r} .65 \bar{p} .0003	.55 .0037	-				
Stability	\bar{r} .43 \bar{p} .0387	.48 .0123	.39 .0492	-			
Depend- ability	\bar{r} .65 \bar{p} .0004	.71 .0001	.52 .0060	.60 .0013	-		
Identifi- cation	\bar{r} .72 \bar{p} .0001	.61 .0010	.73 .0001	.27 .1770	.46 .0176	-	
Idealiza- tion	\bar{r} .75 \bar{p} .0001	.68 .0001	.61 .0009	.25 .2213	.48 .0123	.78 .0001	-

Note: a) Figures for \bar{r} are rounded to the nearest two decimal places.
b) Any discrepancies between \bar{r} and its corresponding \bar{p} are due to rounding errors.

APPENDIX H

PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS (r)
FOR INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE SEVEN VARIABLES
MEASURING ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE
NON-CUSTODIAL PARENT

PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS (\bar{r})
FOR INTERCORRELATIONS OF THE SEVEN VARIABLES
MEASURING ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE
NON-CUSTODIAL PARENT

Variable	Attach- ment	Nur- turance	Hostility	Stability	Depend- ability	Identifi- cation	Idealiza- tion
Attachment	-						
Nurturance	\bar{r} .80 \bar{p} .0001	-					
Hostility	\bar{r} .78 \bar{p} .0001	.87 .0001	-				
Stability	\bar{r} .56 \bar{p} .0031	.71 .0001	.68 .0001	-			
Depend- ability	\bar{r} .73 \bar{p} .0001	.65 .0003	.64 .0005	.50 .0087	-		
Identifi- cation	\bar{r} .81 \bar{p} .0001	.82 .0001	.83 .0001	.57 .0023	.54 .0043	-	
Idealiza- tion	\bar{r} .83 \bar{p} .0001	.86 .0001	.77 .0001	.64 .0004	.57 .0025	.91 .0001	-

Note: a) Figures for \bar{r} are rounded to the nearest two decimal places.
b) Any discrepancies between \bar{r} and its corresponding \bar{p} are due to rounding errors.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abarbanel, A. Shared parenting after separation and divorce: A study of joint custody. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1979, 49(2), 320-329.
- Abernathy, T. J., & Arcus, M. E. The law and divorce in Canada. The Family Coordinator, 1977, 26(4), 409-413.
- Adler, A. Understanding human nature. New York: Premier Books, 1959.
- Ambert, A. M. Divorce in Canada. Don Mills, Ontario: Academic Press Canada, 1980.
- Anthony, E. J. Children at risk from divorce: A review. In E. J. Anthony, C. Koupernik & C. Chiland (Eds.), The child in his family: Children at psychiatric risk (Vol. III). New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1974.
- Ashton, P. T. The role of the attachment bond in effective parenting. In J. H. Stevens & M. Mathews (Eds.), Mother/child, father/child relationships. Washington, D.C.: The National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1978.
- Award, G. A. Basic principles in custody assessment. Canadian Psychiatric Association Journal, 1978, 23(7), 441-447.
- Bane, M. J. Marital disruption and the lives of children. Journal of Social Issues, 1976, 32, 103-117.
- Beal, E. W. Children of divorce: A family systems perspective. Journal of Social Issues, 1979, 35(4), 140-154.
- Bernard, H. W. Adolescent development. Scranton, Illinois: Intext Educational Publishers, 1971.
- Bernhardt, K. Being a parent: Unchanging values in a changing world. D. K. Bernhardt (Ed.). Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1970.
- Bigner, J. J. Parent-child relations: An introduction to parenting. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1979.
- Blos, P. On adolescence: A psychoanalytic interpretation. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1962.

- Blos, P. The adolescent passage: Developmental issues. New York: International Universities Press, 1979.
- Blumenthal, M. D. Mental health among the divorced: A field study of divorced and never divorced persons. Archives of General Psychiatry, 1967, 16(5), 603-608.
- Bogdan, R., & Taylor, S. J. Introduction to qualitative research methods: A phenomenological approach to the social sciences. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1975.
- Briscoe, C. W., Smith, J. B., Robins, E., Marten, S., & Gaskin, F. Divorce and psychiatric disease. Archives of General Psychiatry, 1973, 29(1), 119-125.
- Burchinal, L. G. Characteristics of adolescents from unbroken, broken and reconstituted families. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1964, 26, 44-51.
- Callahan, S. C. Parenting: Principles and politics of parenthood. Baltimore, Maryland: Penguin Books, 1973.
- Campbell, S. F. (Ed.). Piaget sampler: An introduction to Jean Piaget through his own words. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976.
- Canada. The Divorce Act. Revised Statutes of Canada, 1970, ch.D-8, Vol. III, Queen's Printer for Canada, 1970.
- Canada. The Family Law Reform Act (Ontario). The Statutes of the Province of Ontario, 1978, ch.2, J. C. Thatcher: Queen's Printer for Ontario, 1978.
- The Canadian Law Dictionary. D. S. Sodhi (Publ.), Law and Business Publications (Canada) Inc., 1980.
- Cook, M. Interpersonal perception. Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England: Penguin Books, 1971.
- Cook, M. Perceiving others: The psychology of interpersonal perception. London: Methuen & Co., 1979.
- Despert, J. L. Children of divorce. Garden City, New York: Dolphin Books, 1962.
- Dreikurs, R., & Grey, L. Logical consequences. New York: Meredith, 1968.

Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC). Information Retrieval Service. Palo Alto, California: Lockheed Missiles and Space Company, Inc., 3460 Hillview Avenue.

Egleson, J., & Egleson, J. Parents without partners: A guide for divorced, widowed and separated parents. New York: E. P. Dutton Company Inc., 1961.

Eichorn, D. Adolescence. In D. L. Sills (Ed.), International encyclopedia of the social sciences, (Vol. I). New York: The Free Press, 1968.

Emmerich, W. Developmental trends in evaluations of single traits. Child Development, 1974, 45(1), 172-183.

Erikson, E. H. Childhood and society. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1950.

Erikson, E. H. Identity: Youth and crisis. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1968.

Ferguson, G. A. Statistical analysis in psychology and education. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1976.

Festinger, L., & Katz, D. (Eds.). Research methods in the behavioural sciences. New York: The Dryden Press, 1953.

Freud, A. Adolescence. The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child, 1958, 13, 255-278.

Freud, S. [The basic writings of Sigmund Freud.] (A. A. Brill, Ed. and trans.). New York: The Modern Library, 1938.

Gesell, A., & Ilg, F. L. Youth: The years from ten to sixteen. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956.

Goetling, A. The effects of divorce on adults and children in contemporary American society: A review of research. Unpublished manuscript. Portland Oregon: Western Kentucky University, 1980.

Goldstein, J., Freud, A., & Solnit, A. J. Beyond the best interests of the child. New York: The Free Press, 1979.

Goode, W. J. Women in divorce. New York: The Free Press, 1956.

- Greif, J. B. Fathers, children and joint custody. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1979, 49(2), 311-319.
- Helwig, J. T., & Council, K. A. SAS user's guide. Raleigh, North Carolina: SAS Institute Incorporated, 1979.
- Hess, R. D., & Camara, K. A. Post-divorce family relationships as mediating factors in the consequences of divorce for children. Journal of Social Issues, 1979, 35(4), 79-96.
- Hetherington, E. M. Effects of father absence on personality development in adolescent daughters. Developmental Psychology, 1972, 7(3), 313-326.
- Hetherington, E. M. Divorce: A child's perspective. American Psychologist, 1979, 34(10), 851-858.
- Hetherington, E. M., Cox, M., & Cox, R. Divorced fathers. The Family Coordinator, 1976, 25, 417-428.
- Hetherington, E. M., Cox, M., & Cox, R. The aftermath of divorce. In J. H. Stevens and M. Mathews (Eds.). Mother/child father/child relationships. Washington, D.C.: The National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1978.
- Hozman, T. L., & Froiland, D. J. Families in divorce: A proposed model for counselling the children. Family Coordinator, 1976, 25(3), 271-275.
- Iverson, G. R. Statistics for sociology. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Company Publishers, 1979.
- Jacobson, D. S. The impact of marital separation/divorce on children: Parent-child separation and child adjustment. Journal of Divorce, 1978, 1(4), 341-360 (a).
- Jacobson, D. S. The impact of marital separation/divorce on children: Interparent hostility and child adjustment. Journal of Divorce, 1978, 2(1), 3-19 (b).
- Jacobson, D. S. The impact of marital separation/divorce on children: Parent-child communication and child adjustment and regression analysis of findings of overall study. Journal of Divorce, 1978, 2(2), 175-194 (c).
- Jahoda, M., Deutsch, M., & Cook, S. W. Research methods in social relations (Vol. I). New York: The Dryden Press, 1951.

- Jenkins, R. L. Maxims in child custody cases. Family Coordinator, 1977, 26(4), 385-389.
- Kelly, J. B., & Wallerstein, J. S. Part-time parent, part-time child: Visiting after divorce. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 1977, 6(2), 51-54.
- Kelly, J. B., & Wallerstein, J. S. Children of divorce. National Elementary Principal, 1979, 59(1), 51-58.
- Klaus, M. H., & Kennell, J. H. Parent to infant attachment. In J. H. Stevens & M. Mathews (Eds.), Mother/child father/child relationships. Washington, D.C.: The National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1978.
- Kronby, M. C. Canadian family law. Don Mills, Ontario: General Publishing Co., Ltd., 1979.
- Lamb, M. E. The effects of divorce on children's personality development. Journal of Divorce, 1977, 1(2), 163-172.
- Landis, J. T. The pattern of divorce in three generations. Social Forces, 1956, 34, 213-217.
- Laufer, M. Ego ideal and pseudo ego ideal in adolescence. Psychoanalytic Study of the Child, 1964, 19, 196-221.
- Laufer, M. Object loss and mourning during adolescence. Psychoanalytic Study of the Child, 1966, 21, 268-293.
- Lazarsfeld, P. Qualitative analysis: Historical and critical essays. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1972.
- Levitin, T. E. Children of divorce: An introduction. Journal of Social Issues, 1979, 35(4), 1-25.
- Lidz, T. The person: His development throughout the life cycle. New York: Basic Books, 1968.
- Lieberman, M. A., Borman, L. D., & Associates. Self-help groups for coping with crisis: Origins, members, processes and impact. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1979.
- Livesley, W. J., & Bromley, D. B. Person perception in childhood and adolescence. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1973.
- Luepnitz, D. C. Which aspects of divorce affect children? Family Coordinator, 1979, 28(1), 79-85.
- Maccoby, E. E. Social development: Psychological growth and the parent-child relationship. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1980.

- McDermott, J. F. Parental divorce in early childhood. American Psychiatrist, 1968, 124(10), 1424-1432.
- McDermott, J. F. Divorce and its psychiatric sequelae in children. Archives of General Psychiatry, 1970, 23(5), 421-427.
- Mead, D. E. Six approaches to child rearing: Models from psychological theory. Provo, Utah: Brigham Young University Press, 1976.
- Meador, B. D., & Rogers, C. R. Client-centered therapy. In R. Corsini (Ed.), Current psychotherapies. Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock Publishers, 1973.
- Meredith, H. V. A synopsis of puberal changes in youth. Journal of School Health, 1967, 37, 171-176.
- Miller, D. Adolescence: Psychology, psychopathology and psychotherapy. New York: Jason Aronson, 1974.
- Miller, D. C. Handbook of research design and social measurement. New York: David McKay, Inc., 1964.
- Muuss, R. E. Theories of adolescence. New York: Random House, 1962.
- Nye, F. I. Child adjustment in broken and in unhappy unbroken homes. Marriage and Family Living, 1957, 19, 356-361.
- Parsons, T., & Bales, R. F. Family socialization and interaction process. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1955.
- Peters, J. F. Divorce. In G. N. Ramu (Ed.), Courtship, marriage and the family in Canada. Toronto: Macmillan Company of Canada, 1979.
- Piaget, J. [The child and reality.] (A. Rosen, Trans.). New York: Grossman Publishers, 1973.
- Pineo, P. C., & Porter, J. Occupational prestige in Canada. The Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology, 1967, 4(1), 24-40.
- Polansky, N. A. (Ed.). Social work research: Methods for the helping professions. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1975.
- Ramos, S. The complete book of child custody. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1979.

- Rappoport, L. Personality development: The chronology of experience. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1972.
- Raschke, H., & Day, R. D. (Comps.). Compilation of Unpublished Research about Divorce (CURD). National Council on Family Relations Task Force on Divorce, South Dakota State University, 1980.
- Rohrlich, J. A., Ranier, R., Berg-Cross, L., & Berg-Cross, G. The effects of divorce: A research review with a developmental perspective. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 1977, 6(2), 15-20.
- Rubin, L., & Price, J. Divorce and its effects on children. Journal of School Health, 1979, 49(10), 552-556.
- Russian, R. B. Idealization during adolescence. Smith College Studies in Social Work, 1975, 45(3), 211-229.
- Schatzman, L., & Strauss, A. L. Field research: Strategies for a natural sociology. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1973.
- Schiff, W. Perception: An applied approach. Boston: The Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1980.
- Schlesinger, B. Children and divorce in Canada: The law reform commission's recommendations. Journal of Divorce, 1977, 1(2), 175-182.
- Schneider, D. J., Hastorf, A. H., & Ellsworth, P. C. Person perception. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1979.
- Seagull, A. A., & Seagull, E. A. W. The non-custodial father's relationship to his child: Conflicts and solutions. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 1977, 6(2), 11-15.
- Seibald, H. Adolescence: A social psychological analysis. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1977.
- Sell, K. (Comp.). Divorce in the 1970's: A subject guide to books, articles, dissertations, government documents and films on divorce in the United States, 1970-1976 (supplement 1977, 1978, 1979). K. Sell (Publ.). Department of Sociology, Catawba College, Salisbury, North Carolina.

- Selltiz, C., Wrightsman, L. S., & Cook, S. W. Research methods in social relations. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976.
- Sorosky, A. D. Psychological effects of divorce on adolescents. Adolescence, 1977, 12, 123-136.
- Statistics Canada. Vital statistics, Vol. II. Marriages and divorces, 1977 (CAT. 84-205). Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services, November 1979.
- Statistics Canada. Vital statistics, Vol. II. Marriages and divorces, 1978 (CAT. 84-205). Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services, April 1980.
- Statistics Canada. Vital statistics, Vol. II. Marriages and divorces, 1979 (CAT. 84-205). Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services, June 1981.
- Stevens, J. H., & Mathews, M. (Eds.). Mother/child father/child relationships. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1978.
- Symonds, P. The dynamics of parent-child relationships. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1949.
- Tagiuri, R. Person perception. In G. Lindzey & E. Aronson (Eds.), The handbook of social psychology (Vol. III). Reading, Massachusetts: Addison Wesley Publishing Co., 1968.
- Tagiuri, R., & Petrullo, L. (Eds.). Person perception and interpersonal behavior. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1958.
- Tripodi, T., Fellin, P., & Meyer, H. J. The assessment of social research: Guidelines for use of research in social work and social science. Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1969.
- Toronto Community Law Program. Marriage and divorce in law. H. Sachs & G. Waldman (Eds.).
- Wakil, S. P. Marriage and family in Canada. Journal of Comparative Family Studies. Monograph. G. Kurian (Ed.). Calgary, Alberta: Department of Sociology, 1976.
- Wallerstein, J. S., & Kelly, J. B. The effects of parental divorce: The adolescent experience. In E. J. Anthony, C. Koupernik & C. Chiland (Eds.), The child in his family: Children at psychiatric risk (Vol. III). New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1974.

Wallerstein, J. S., & Kelly, J. B. The effects of parental divorce: Experiences of the child in later latency. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1976, 46(2), 256-269.

Wallerstein, J. S., & Kelly, J. B. Divorce counselling: A community service for families in the midst of divorce. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1977, 47, 4-22.

Wallerstein, J. S., & Kelly, J. B. Children and divorce: A review. Social Work, 1979, 24(6), 468-475.

Wallerstein, J. S., & Kelly, J. B. California's children of divorce. Psychology Today, 1980, 13(8), 67-68; 70-72; 74-76.

Weiss, R. S. Marital separation. New York: Basic Books, 1975.

Weiss, R. S. Going it alone: The family life and social situation of the single parent. New York: Basic Books, 1979.

Yarrow, M. R., & Campbell, J. D. Person perception in children. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1963, 9, 57-72.

VITA AUCTORIS

Lillian Guarasci was born September 6, 1955 in Windsor, Ontario. She received her elementary education at St. Francis School. Her secondary education began in 1969 at St. Mary's Academy and she transferred to Forster Collegiate Institute the following year. She received her secondary school honours diploma in 1974.

Ms. Guarasci entered the University of Windsor in 1974 and completed a Bachelor of Social Work degree in 1978. Her undergraduate field practicums were with the Senior Citizens Centre, Roman Catholic Children's Aid Society, and the Windsor Public School Board.

Ms. Guarasci was employed as a family service worker with the Catholic Children's Aid Society of Metropolitan Toronto following graduation. She was employed with this agency from August, 1978 to August, 1980. In September, 1980 Ms. Guarasci returned to the University of Windsor and entered the Master Social Work program. Her graduate field practicum was with the Regional Children's Centre. She expects to graduate in the Spring of 1982.

VITA AUCTORIS

Theresa M. Sheehan was born December 1, 1952 in Windsor, Ontario. She completed her elementary and secondary school education in Windsor, Ontario. Ms. Sheehan received her secondary school diploma from St. Mary's Academy and her honours secondary school diploma from Forster Collegiate. She attended King's College, University of Western Ontario in London from 1972 to 1975 where she graduated with a Bachelor of Arts degree in sociology.

Ms. Sheehan obtained a variety of work experiences as a counsellor at a crisis intervention centre and doing child care work at the Roman Catholic Children's Aid Society and at the Essex County Children's Aid Society.

In July, 1977, Ms. Sheehan entered the Social Work program at the University of Windsor. Her field practicum was with the Canadian Mental Health Association. She graduated with a Bachelor of Social Work degree in 1978. Ms. Sheehan was employed as a social worker at Windsor Western Hospital, Psychiatric Outpatient Clinic from June, 1978 to November, 1980.

Ms. Sheehan entered the Master of Social Work program in September, 1980. Her graduate field practicum was with the Catholic Family Service Bureau of Windsor. She served as a teaching assistant from October, 1980 to April, 1981 with the Social Work Department. Ms. Sheehan was also employed as a part-time instructor for the community services